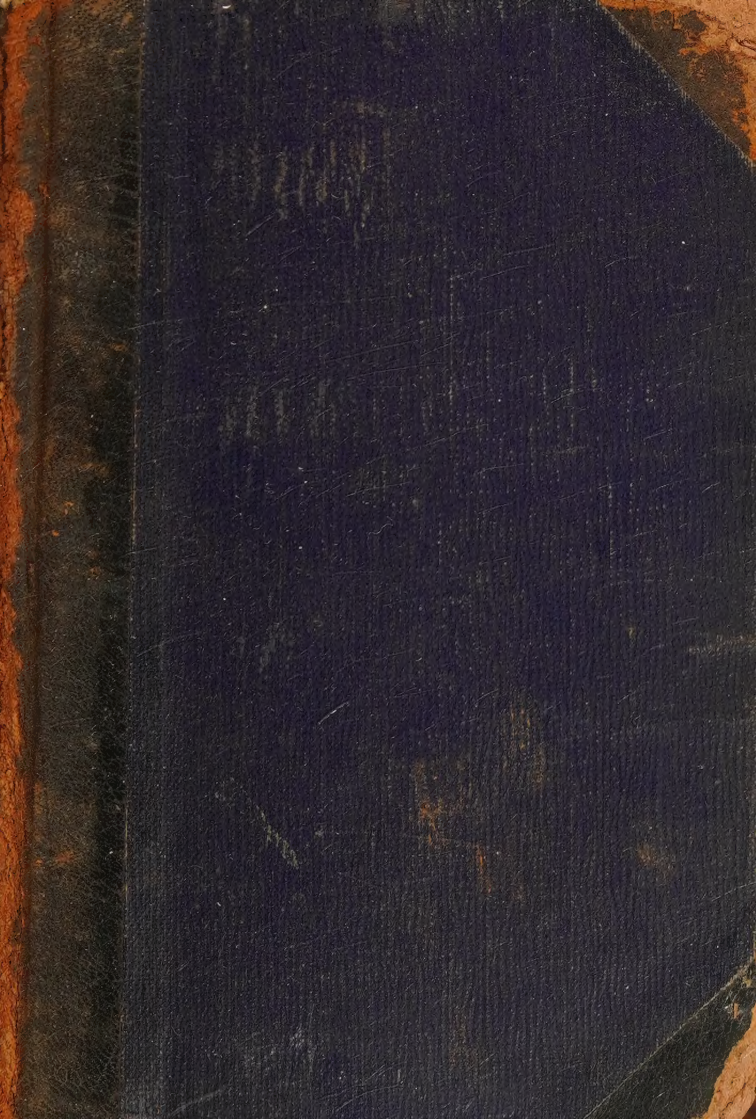




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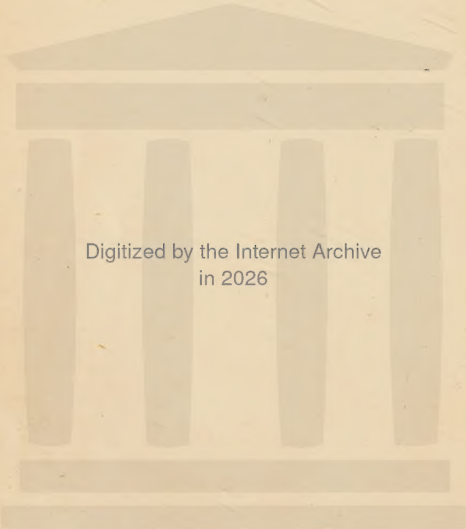
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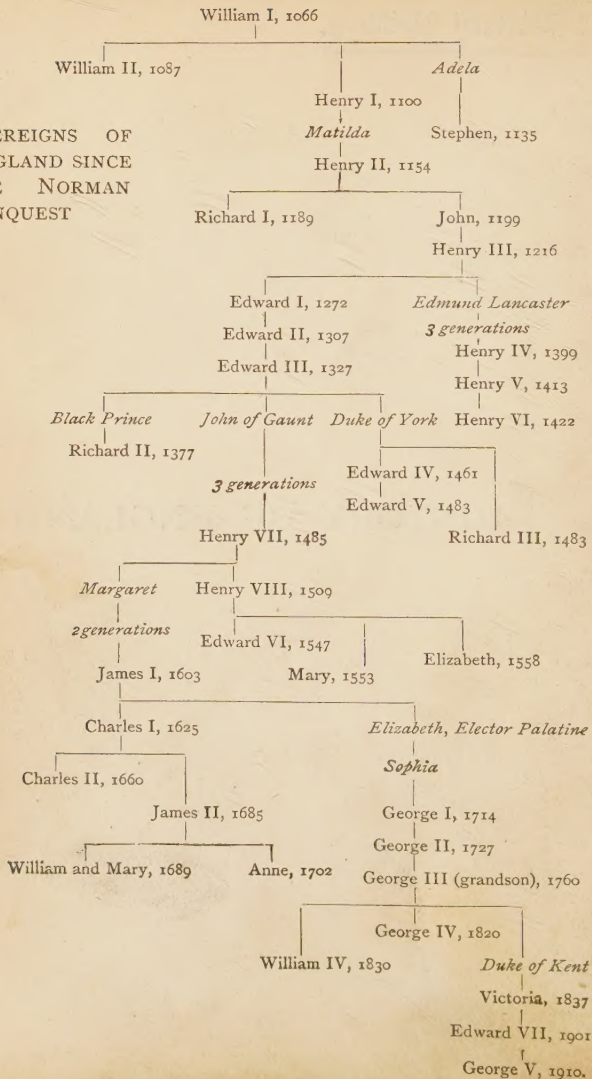


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HISTORY OF ENGLAND

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HISTORY OF ENGLAND

BY
ARABELLA B. BUCKLEY
(MRS. FISHER)

AUTHOR OF 'THE FAIRYLAND OF SCIENCE,' A 'SHORT HISTORY OF NATURAL
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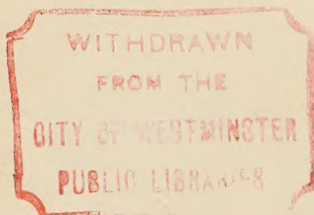
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HISTORY OF ENGLAND

CHAPTER I

ROMAN BRITAIN—EARLY ENGLAND

IN this little book we are going to study the *History of England*, and we must begin by understanding what this means, for England is only part of the "British Isles" over which King George V reigns. It would be a grand thing to write the history of the British Isles, and to show how all that is best in the Irish, Scotch, Welsh, and English has combined to build up the great English-speaking people who have now spread all over the world. But that would be a heavy task; in this book we can only refer to the Scotch, Irish, and Welsh when what they did specially affected that part of the kingdom which for a long time stood alone as *England*.

Yet there was a time long ago when the British Isles were all inhabited by people who were not English, and before we begin the history of England we must see what our country was like before the English came.

Palæolithic Man.—In ages long before the time of history, this land was inhabited by savages who lived in caves; while wild beasts—lions, tigers, hyænas, elephants, hippopotami, reindeer, and elks—wandered in the dense forests. These men, whose weapons have been found in caves and river-gravels, mingled with the bones of extinct animals, are called the men of the *Palæolithic* or *Ancient Stone* period, because they fought and worked with flints roughly chipped to a point. We know very little about them, and it is not likely that we are in any way descended from them.

Neolithic Man.—Long after these men, came others who made better stone weapons. These are called the men of the *Neolithic* or *New Stone* period. We find their skeletons in many parts of Great Britain and Ireland, buried in long chambers or barrows lined with stone slabs. When the earth is dug away, these stones form rude tables, which were long mistaken for altars, and called *cromlechs*. The strange stone circles at Stonehenge and elsewhere were probably raised by these men. In the barrows with the skeletons are found polished axes and arrowheads of stones, needles and pins of bone, pieces of rough pottery, and woven flax and straw. Also the remains of dogs, pigs, sheep, and oxen, showing that the Neolithic men kept domestic animals. The skulls of these men are long and narrow, like the skulls of the Basques or Iberians, a dark-skinned curly-headed people still living in Spain. They are interesting to us, because there is still a small dark type of men among the Irish and Welsh which may be descended from them, and many of us may have some of their blood in our veins.

Celtic Man.—Later still another race with rounded skulls mingled with the long-headed men. We find

their skeletons buried in round barrows made entirely of earth, and with them both bronze and stone weapons. Iron tools are found in some of the later barrows, showing a higher civilisation. These men belonged to a people called *Celts*, who were a branch of the *Aryan* group of nations. Scholars tell us that these Aryans spread into India and Persia on one side, and across Europe on the other, long before the time of history. Some of them crossed the sea into Britain, conquered the small, dark, long-headed natives, and settled down among them. With them history begins, for 600 years before Christ they are mentioned by the Phœnicians, who came by sea to trade with the Scilly Isles for tin. About a hundred years later some Greeks came overland from Massilia, or Marseilles, and traded with them. From this time we find our island called *Albion*, and Ireland *Ierne*, while the whole group was named *Britannia*.

Roman Conquest of Britain.—About 350 years after the Greeks, the great Roman general Julius Cæsar came in the years 55 and 54 *before* Christ, and defeating the Britons under their chief, *Cassivelaunus*, made them promise to pay tribute to Rome. Then he went away again, and for another hundred years the Britons had their country to themselves.

In the year 43 *after* Christ, however, the Emperor Claudius sent his Roman legions and conquered the south of Britain. Though the people in the north and middle of the island were still ignorant, and clothed in the skins of beasts, the southern Britons were now fairly civilised. They grew corn and had basket-work canoes, and boats hollowed out of tree-trunks. They had war-chariots, spears, and pikes, and shields of skin and wicker-work. They wore tunics of cloth and arm-rings of gold and silver.

Each tribe had a *din*, or stronghold, as a place of refuge in time of war, and one of these, the *Lynn-din*, or lake-fort (pronounced *Lundun*), was probably the beginning of our great city. For seven years these southern Britons defended themselves against the Romans in the woods and marshes, encouraged by their priests the *Druids*; but in the year 50 their great chief, Caractacus, was taken prisoner to Rome, and the Romans, reaching the isle of Anglesey, then called *Mona*, massacred the Druids in their stronghold. Queen Boadicea, the widow of a British chief, did indeed raise a serious revolt in the East of England, but, after London had been burnt, the Romans gained the victory, and Boadicea took poison to escape being made a prisoner.

Roman Rule A.D. 61-410.—After this the Romans ruled over the Southern Britons for about 300 years. They drove back the savage and warlike Picts and Scots, a Celtic people who lived in Northern Britain, and shut them out by strong walls, of which one was the famous wall of Hadrian, between the Solway and the Tyne. They made good laws, built towns and villas, and laid down solid roads; and they cleared the forests and grew corn. In their time Christian missionaries arrived, and the people became Christian and advanced in civilisation. Yet though the Britons were well governed they did not like Roman rule; and when the Roman legions were called back to Italy in 401 to fight the barbarians, the people were glad. They did indeed send for them once again to defend them from the Picts and Scots; but in the year 410 the Romans withdrew entirely, and left the Britons to take care of themselves.

This brings us to the point where the history of England begins, for the Britons, helpless and harassed by the Picts, invited our ancestors to come over the

sea and fight for them. Who these ancestors were, and how they came, we must now learn.

The Jutes, Angles, and Saxons.—For more than a hundred years before the Romans left Britain they had been troubled by pirates, who came across the German Ocean in flat-bottomed boats and plundered the people on the British coasts. These pirates were not Celts, like the Britons, but *Teutons*, another



Walker & Boulton sc.

branch of the Aryan group. They came from the East long after the Celts, and spread over Germany, as far south as the Romans would let them, and northwards into Jutland, Norway, and Sweden, where they became bold sea-rovers. Three tribes of these Teutons—the *Saxons*, who lived between the Elbe and Weser, the *Jutes* in Jutland, and the *Angles*, who inhabited the country called Angeln between the other two tribes—were, as you will see by the map,

very conveniently placed for swooping down upon the east coasts of Britain.

English Conquest of South Britain, 449-603.—The Saxons had come already several times before the Romans left, but had always been driven back ; and it was the *Jutes* who first made a settlement in our country. In 449 Vortigern, a British chief, invited Hengist and Horsa, two chiefs from Jutland, to come over and help him against the Picts. They came, and Horsa was killed ; but Hengist remained and, after the Picts were conquered, attacked the Britons themselves, and settled in the Isle of Thanet. His son Eric founded the kingdoms of East and West Kent, peopled by Jutes.

Next, in 477, the *Saxons* came, uninvited, to the south coast, and struggled with the Britons for sixty years, driving them back little by little, and settling down with their wives and children on the land as they conquered it. They founded the kingdoms of the South Saxons, or *Sussex* (see Map, p. 5), West Saxons, or *Wessex*, East Saxons, or *Essex*, and Middle Saxons, or *Middlesex*.

Meanwhile the *Angles* had attacked the north-east coast. Two separate parties came over to the north of the river Humber and each founded a kingdom, and the two were united in the year 603 into the one kingdom of *North-Humber-land*, which stretched from the river Humber right up to the Firth of Forth. Others, called *North-folk* and *South-folk*, settled on the east coast and formed the kingdom of *East Anglia*, while others pushed on into the middle of England. These last were called Marchmen or Bordermen, and their kingdom *Mercia*, because they lived on the borders of the land into which the Britons had been driven. But they were also called *Angles* or *Engles*, like the men of East Anglia and Northumbria.

British Strongholds.—Thus, about 200 years after the Romans left, the Jutes, Saxons, and Angles held all the eastern half of Britain, from the south coast to the Firth of Forth. The Britons were all driven westward; on the south-west into Devon and Cornwall, or *West Wales*; in the west into the mountain fastnesses of *North Wales*; and on the north-west into Cumberland, Westmoreland, and Lancashire, then called *Strathclyde*. They now began to be called *Welsh*, a word used by the Angles, meaning “strangers”; and they in their turn called their conquerors *Saxons*. But the newcomers themselves more commonly called each other *Engles* or *English*.

Early English Life.—Though rough and wild the English were a home-loving, hardworking people, and as soon as they got a footing on any fresh piece of country they settled down and began to form villages. The largest house in the village belonged to some rich noble called the Etheling, or *Eorl*, the smaller ones to the *Ceorls*, or Churls, who were free men, each with his own plot of land. There were other free men called *Laets*, who had no land, and also many slaves, who were either Britons, or English who had lost their freedom. At the village *moot*, or meeting, each freeman might speak his mind freely; and there any man accused of crime was judged, and acquitted if he could get twelve honest men to swear that he was innocent. If not, then he might try what was called the *ordeal*, or “judgment of God,” by walking blindfold over red-hot ploughshares, or dipping his hand in boiling water.

Each village or township had a rough fence round it called a *tun*, and was separated from the next village by a piece of waste ground called a *mark*, which no man might cross without blowing a horn.

The townships were grouped into *hundreds*, and each township sent men to the *Folkmoot*, or meeting of their hundred, to elect an *earlderman* to lead them in battle, and to speak for them at the *Witenagemot*, or meeting of wise men. This *Witenagemot* had power to declare peace or war, and also to elect a king to reign over the kingdom.

English Kings and Overlords.—Thus the men of Kent had their own king, and so had the men of Sussex, Wessex, Middlesex, Northumbria, Anglia, and Mercia, and these seven kingdoms have sometimes been called the *Heptarchy*. But there were never exactly seven for any length of time, for the English were a turbulent people, always at war with each other, and the different tribes combined and separated over and over again. At one time *Northumbria* was the most powerful kingdom, and one of its kings, *Edwin* (617-633), was *overlord* of all the other kingdoms except Kent. Then *Mercia* took the lead under her great king, *Offa* the Mighty (757-795); and lastly, in 827, *Egbert*, king of *Wessex*, conquered both the Mercians and Northumbrians, and ruled over all the English from the south coast to the Firth of Forth.

Conversion of the English to Christianity.—Meanwhile another great change had come over the English. When they settled in Britain they were heathen, believing in the old gods of the north, Woden and Thor; and though the Britons were Christians they did not learn from them. It was not till the year 596 that *Pope Gregory*, having seen some beautiful fair English boys sold as slaves in Rome, sent an abbot named *Augustine* with forty monks to preach the gospel to the English people. Ethelbert, king of Kent, and many of his people, were the first to become Christians in 597, and soon

after Edwin, king of Northumbria, followed his example. In the north, and among the Picts, Irish monks had long preached Christianity, which St. Patrick had brought to Ireland more than a hundred years before.

Penda, king of Mercia, however, clung to the old heathen gods, and roused his people and the Welsh against the Christians. This led to a war of more than twenty years between Mercia and Northumbria till *Penda* was killed in 655. Then all the English became Christians, and in 673 Theodore of Tarsus, Archbishop of Canterbury, divided the land into parishes, and appointed bishops and priests.

Monasteries, too, sprang up rapidly, and the people gathered round them. The monks found work for carpenters and other artizans and traders; markets were held at the abbey gates; and in this way small towns grew up. The monks, too, encouraged learning. *Caedmon* of Whitby, our first English poet, was taught by them; and our first English historian, *Bede* (673-735), was an English monk at Jarrow, on the coast of Durham.

CHAPTER II

DANISH INVASIONS AND SETTLEMENTS— THE NORMAN CONQUEST

Invasions of the Danes, 794-879. — Scarcely, however, had the English begun to settle down from their petty wars, than they were attacked by another branch of their own race from over the sea. You will remember that some of the Teutons in early times

went northwards to Denmark and Normandy. Their descendants, the Danes and Norsemen, had remained a fierce and warlike people, and now they began to come over in the summer to ravage the English coasts, just as the English themselves had done 400 years before. In the year 794 they plundered the monastery of Jarrow, and during the next fifty years they were a constant trouble to the Northumbrians and East Anglians. In the year 855 they wintered, for the first time in England, in the Isle of Sheppey at the mouth of the Thames, and after that they often remained in the country. In the year 871, having conquered a large part of Northumbria, Mercia, and East Anglia, they began to turn their arms against Wessex.

Resistance of Alfred the Great, 871-901.—But here they met with their match. By this time the kings of Wessex were lords over the whole English people, and *Alfred the Great*, who became king in 871, had already helped his brother, Ethelred I, to fight against the Danes before he came to the throne. When his brother died, he found himself, at the age of twenty-two, king over a wasted country, and he determined to set it free. At first he failed. Though he both fought and bribed the Danes they came on in endless numbers, till at last in 878, after seven years' fighting, he was defeated at Chippenham, and obliged to flee to the woods and marshes in disguise. But he took courage, and collecting a band of faithful friends round him at Athelney, in the swamps of Somersetshire, he made one more desperate effort. He gained a complete victory at *Ethandun* or *Edington* (see Map), near Chippenham, and forced the Danish leader Guthrum to make a treaty at Wedmore. By this treaty the Danes acknowledged Alfred as overlord, and bound them-



selves not to come south of a line drawn from Chester to the mouth of the Thames, along the old Roman road of Watling Street.

Making of England under Alfred and his Family, 879-925.—This left all Wessex, Sussex, Kent, part of Essex, and part of Mercia under Alfred's rule, and he set to work to strengthen and improve his kingdom. He built ships to defend himself against the Danes at sea, and he divided the people into two parts, each to take their turn in going to war, or in remaining at home to cultivate the land. He collected the old laws of the English, and persuaded the Witan to adopt them, and by restoring the monasteries and schools, and himself translating books for his people, he encouraged them to learn and grow wiser. When he died in 901 he had drawn the people together into a strong nation, and his son Edward (901-925) was able, with the help of his sister Ethelfled, the "Lady of Mercia," to set to work and reconquer the rest of the country. Ethelfled herself retook five Danish boroughs in Mercia, and Edward conquered the rest of the *Danelagh* or Daneland, on the east coast up to Northumbria. He also forced the princes of Wales and Strathclyde to acknowledge him as "father and lord," so that Danes, Welsh, and English were subject to him. His son Athelstan, who succeeded him (925-940), often called himself "Emperor of Britain"; but he had a very unsettled empire, and the three next kings, Edmund, Edred, and Edwy, had to struggle against constant revolts.

Government of Archbishop Dunstan.—The man who really held the country together was a monk named *Dunstan*, who became minister in Edward's reign, and afterwards Archbishop of Canterbury. Dunstan did not fight, he governed. Although the country was now under one rule, and called by one

name *Engla-land*, yet the people were anything but united. In the extreme north the Lowland Scots, who were Teutons, had their own king, with Edinburgh for their capital. In *Northumbria* the Ceorls were still very prosperous and free; they had large farms and good living, master and servant feeding at the same table, and they gave way to no man except to the bishops and the king, but spoke their mind freely at village-moot and shire-moot. For the village moots were now grouped into *shires* all over the kingdom, and each shire had its *shire-reeve* or *sheriff*, the king's officer.

The Ceorls of *South England* were not so free. In the troubled times of war they had often been glad to put themselves under the protection of some powerful man, and held their land under him as *villeins* or husbandmen, so they could no longer go where they liked, nor vote as they pleased. The kings, too, had greatly increased the number of their *thegns* or warriors, and made many of them noble. These new nobles led idle and boisterous lives, and made the villeins work for them. Also in the Witenagemot the nobles and the bishops had now the most influence, and the freemen could not always gain what was just. On the *East coast*, where the Danes and English were much mixed, there was more freedom, for the Danes were very jealous of interference, and were often troublesome. Lastly, in the *West* there were the restless and turbulent Welsh princes.

Dunstan ruled all these factions well. He allowed the Danes to follow their own laws, and made the Welsh king pay a tribute of wolves' heads in token of submission; and he encouraged the monks and schoolmasters to teach the English people, while at the same time he held the nobles in check, and kept evenhanded justice as far as he could in the land.

He succeeded so well that during the reign of Alfred's great grandson, Edgar I (959-975), there were sixteen years of peace. Unfortunately when Edgar died, and his little son Edward was murdered by order of his stepmother Elfrith, Dunstan was driven out from being minister. He died nine years after.

Decline of the English Kings, 979-1016.—Then followed thirty-six years of trouble during the reign of Elfrith's son, who was called *Ethelred the Unready*, because he would not listen to the *rede* or advice of others. Ethelred quarrelled with his thegns and misgoverned the country, which broke up again into petty states, and fell a prey to the Danes, who began once more to come over in great numbers under a very brave king called *Swegen* or Sweyn. Ethelred levied a tax called *Danegeld* to buy them off, but they only came again and again, and many of the thegns joined them. Though the next king, *Edmund Ironsides*, fought bravely, yet when he died after seven months' reign, Swegen's son, *Cnut*, came to the throne, and was acknowledged king by English and Danes alike.

England under Danish Kings, 1016-1042.—So *Cnut*, a Danish king, ruled over Denmark, Norway, and England. He was a good and popular king, and the land had quiet for eighteen years. During this period the Danes who lived in England settled down as part of the English nation, so that to this day most of the people in the east of England have Danish blood in their veins. If Cnut's sons, *Harold* and *Harthacnut*, had been like their father, our kings might also have descended from them. But these young men were wild and worthless, and when Harthacnut died seven years after his father, the English and Danes sent to Normandy for Edward, a

son of Ethelred the Unready, to come and be their king.

Rise of Norman influence.—We hear now for the first time of another people, the Normans, for Edward's mother, Emma, was a Norman, and he had been brought up in Normandy. Yet the Normans were not a new race, but only another branch of the Danes or Norsemen, who had crossed over into France from Scandinavia about the time of Alfred the Great.

They were led by a chief named Rollo, who married a daughter of the French king, and reigned as Duke over a part of northern France, which became known as Normandy or Norseman's land. Thus the English, Danes, and Normans all came in the beginning from the same part of Europe, and were of the same race. But there was this difference: the Danes had intermarried with their relations the English, while the Norsemen who went to France intermarried with the French who were a different race, and had very different manners and customs. Therefore Edward was half a foreigner, and, moreover, he had been brought up in France with his cousin William, Duke of Normandy, and they were fast friends.

Edward the Confessor, 1042-1066.—So when Edward was elected king of England by the Witan, he brought over with him many Norman priests and nobles, and gave them lands and high offices. This displeased the people, and they were glad when Godwin, Earl of Wessex (whose daughter Edith, Edward had married), kept the Norman nobles in check. After a time, however, Godwin fell into disgrace because he defended the men of Dover against a Norman noble, and he and his sons being declared out-

laws (1051), he retired to Flanders. While he was away, the Duke of Normandy came to England, and it was said that Edward promised he should be the next king; though the crown was not his to give away, only the Witan could say who should reign.

Harold the Saxon.—The next year Godwin came back, to the great joy of the English, and many Norman nobles fled away to France. Then for fourteen years England was once more governed by her own people. Edward was a gentle pious king, so devoted to religion that the name of *Edward the Confessor* was given to him by the Church. He interested himself chiefly in building the church of St. Peter at Westminster where the Abbey now stands, and left the government to Godwin's son, Harold, a brave soldier and good statesman. Under his rule the people were happy, and except some disturbances in Wales and Northumberland, the land was at peace. When Edward died in 1066 he recommended that Harold should be king, and the Witan elected him the same day. He was crowned at Westminster by Archbishop Eldred.

The Battle of Hastings, October 14, 1066.—But he reigned only a few months. William, Duke of Normandy, at once claimed the crown, and declared that Harold had promised it to him some years before, when he was shipwrecked and made prisoner on the coast of Normandy. Harold, too, had other enemies. His own brother Tostig, who had been exiled for governing badly, came with the king of Norway to invade the north of England. Harold hastened to Yorkshire, and defeated the Norwegian army at the battle of *Stamford Bridge*, in which Tostig and the king of Norway were both killed. Then he hurried south again, just in time to find that the

Normans had landed at Pevensey in Sussex. A fortnight later the famous *Battle of Hastings* took place on a hill called Senlac, seven miles from the town. The sturdy Saxon soldiers, clad in mail, fought bravely with javelins and two-handed axes, and the country folk helped them with pikes and forks. They stood so firmly that the Normans, who pressed up the hill on horseback, could not break through the wall of men. At last, by William's orders, the horsemen pretended to flee, and when the English rushed down the hill after them, they turned and broke through the scattered ranks, cutting the men to pieces. A small band of nobles gathered round Harold at the top of the hill, and William ordered his archers to shoot in the air, so that the arrows should fall on the English from above. One arrow struck Harold in the eye, and he fell, and was killed by four Norman knights. William was now conqueror. He marched at once to London, and the Witan, cowed and disheartened, "bowed to him for need," and elected him king.

CHAPTER III

ENGLAND UNDER NORMAN RULE

William I, 1066—William II, 1087—Henry I, 1100—
Stephen, 1135

Rise of the Feudal System.—William of Normandy, having been elected by the Witan, was now lawful king of England, though he was in no sense an Englishman, and had only conquered the south-east of the island. He was a hard, stern man, but a wise and great ruler, and as the English were now a

nation of sturdy, independent men, they were not easily crushed. At first, however, the changes that were made caused great misery. The Norman barons, knights, and soldiers who had helped to conquer the land claimed rewards from William. So he declared that the English had forfeited their rights by fighting against him, and that all the land had become his, to give to whom he pleased. On this plea he divided the whole of Kent and the greater part of Sussex and Surrey, as well as much of the other shires, among his followers, giving back portions only to widows and orphans and smaller landowners.

This altered the whole tenure of land in England. Under the old English system each man had his own freehold and chose his own alderman, who in his turn helped to choose the king. Now all this was reversed. The land belonged to the king, who gave it to his nobles, and they held it from him, while the small owners held it again from them as *vassals*. The vassal knelt bareheaded before his lord and swore to be his liegeman, loyal to him in life and death; and then the lord gave him the land as a *fief* or *feudum* for himself and his heirs for ever, and in return he had to provide men to fight for his lord. Thus the old English freeholders now held their land from the king and the Norman lords, and the villeins and slaves were at the mercy of foreigners.

Another grievance was the building of strong castles all over the country. In London the White Tower was built on the banks of the Thames, and at Hastings, Windsor, Rochester, Norwich, Exeter, and other places huge battlemented towers arose, in which the barons could keep soldiers to overawe the conquered people.

Struggle with the English Patriots, 1067-1071.—Nor were the nobles careful to treat the people well;

they were wild and insolent, and oppressed the English and insulted their wives and daughters. So while William was away in Normandy risings were planned all over the land. He hastened back, and four years of struggle followed. First he subdued a rising in the west, then the north-country people rebelled, with the help of the Danes, and to conquer them William did a cruel thing. He utterly devastated the whole vale of Yorkshire from York to Durham, destroying houses, crops, cattle, and people, burning everything before him. The land was desolate for nine years, and the people died of hunger, or sold themselves as slaves. At last, one by one, the risings were put down, and only a small band of patriots, led by Morkere and Hereward-the-Wake, took refuge for nearly a year in the Isle of Ely. Even they were taken in 1071, and the land was subdued.

Government of William.—Yet in spite of all this misery, and of another cruel wrong done by the king in laying waste a large part of Hampshire to make the *New Forest* for his hunting, William governed England well. Knowing that the powerful Norman nobles might give him great trouble, he took pains to secure the trust and obedience of the English. At a great meeting at Salisbury in 1086 he made all the great landowners swear allegiance directly to him. He adopted the English laws and administered them justly. He kept the work of the shires in the hands of his own sheriffs, under the *Chancellor* or chief secretary; and he encouraged the people to bring all their complaints before the king's court. In order to have a record of all the land of England, and of all the taxes which each man ought to pay, he had a survey made, and all the reports entered into a book called *Domesday Book*, probably because it was drawn up in the shire court where the *dooms* or judgments were given. He

also reformed many abuses in the church with the help of his able minister, Archbishop Lanfranc, and he gave the clergy courts of their own, so that they no longer sat in the law courts. By this wise government, and by using the best laws of both English and Normans, William gained the confidence of the English, who felt that he was their friend.

The last years of his reign were peaceful, except that the people were terribly oppressed by heavy taxes. He himself, however, had troubles with his barons in Normandy, who rebelled under his own eldest son Robert. He died on Sept. 9, 1087, from a severe blow caused by the stumbling of his horse, when riding over the hot ashes of the burning city of Mantes. On his deathbed he sent his second surviving son William in haste to England, to be crowned by Lanfranc, for he knew that Robert, who now became Duke of Normandy, was too weak and headstrong to govern the English.

Oppression under William II, 1087-1100.—The twelve years during which William II reigned in England were years of misery. William, called Rufus from his red hair, was brave and a good soldier. In his reign the conquest of Wales was begun (1090); that part of Strathclyde now called Cumberland was subdued and added to England; and Scotland was made to render feudal homage to the English king. But though William was freehanded to the nobles who followed him, his life was wild and vicious; he cared little for law or religion, and so long as he could get money for his wars and pleasures, he was indifferent how it was wrung out of the people.

At first all went well, for Lanfranc really governed, and as William was at war with his own barons, who rebelled in favour of Robert, he was obliged to depend on the English to fight for him. But at

the end of two years Lanfranc died, and William left the archbishopric vacant for four years and took the income himself. He also appointed a coarse, low-minded man named Ralph Flambard to be his minister or *Justiciar*. This man oppressed the people in every way. He levied unjust taxes, and sold bishoprics, paying the money into the king's treasury; and he exacted heavy tributes from the nobles, who, in their turn, lived upon the country folk, taking their food, selling their crops, and using their horses. "*All that was hateful to God and oppressive to man,*" says the Saxon Chronicle, "*was customary in this land in William's time, and therefore he was most hateful to almost all his people and odious to God.*"

William Rufus and Anselm.—At last, in 1093, William, being seriously ill, was frightened at the remembrance of his vices, and appointed a good and learned man, Anselm, Abbot of Bec, to the Archbishopric of Canterbury. Anselm did not wish to accept the post, for he knew William too well, but they forced the crozier into his hands, and he had to yield. His fears were soon justified. When William grew well again his scruples vanished, and he hated Anselm because he rebuked him for his vices and his oppressions. After struggling in vain for four years against wickedness he could not prevent, Anselm retired to Rome in 1097 till after William's death.

Death of William Rufus, 1100.—Meanwhile William had gone to war with his brother Robert, Duke of Normandy, and in the end paid large sums of money both to him and to the French king. Robert in return pledged Normandy to William and went off to the Crusades. And for all this the English had to provide the money. But the end was near. On Aug. 2, 1100, William, when

hunting in the New Forest, became separated from his companions, and was found by some peasants dead, with an arrow in his heart. It was supposed that a Frenchman named Walter Tyrell shot him by accident, but he denied it on oath, and it is more likely that he was murdered by one of the poor peasants to whom he was *hateful by the oppressions he wrought*.

His brother Henry, who was one of the hunting-party, galloped off to Winchester to secure the throne, before any one should propose his elder brother Robert, who was still at the Crusades.

The Charter of Liberties—Henry I, 1100-1135.

—It is pleasant to turn to a new reign which brought better times. Henry I, the Conqueror's youngest son, though hard and selfish, was an intelligent and able man. He knew that his seat on the throne depended upon his governing well, and as soon as he was elected king and crowned, Aug. 5, 1100, he issued a *charter* in which he promised to give the people back their old laws and freedom, and to free the Church from unjust burdens, and the land from evil customs. He also sent the infamous Ralph Flambard to prison in the Tower, and recalled good Archbishop Anselm. Moreover, he pleased the people by marrying Edith, the daughter of Malcolm of Scotland and of Margaret, granddaughter of Edmund Ironsides. Edith, therefore, was of English royal blood, and through her our kings and queens to this day can trace back their descent to the early Saxon kings. To please the Normans, however, Edith's name was changed to Matilda.

Struggle with the Norman Barons—New English Nobility.—One of the first events of Henry's reign was a war with the barons, who wanted Robert to be king, for they knew that Henry was a strict ruler,

whereas under Robert they could have done much as they liked. For five years there was constant fighting both in England and Normandy, till at last Henry won the great battle of *Tenchebrai* (1106), and put Robert in an English prison, where he remained till his death in 1134.

This struggle with the barons did good to England, for Henry took away the estates of the rebellious nobles and gave them to lesser men, who, though they were chiefly Normans, did not belong to the old nobility with land and interests in Normandy. These new nobles, therefore, looked upon England as their home; they often became sheriffs of counties, and married English wives. So by degrees the distinctions between Normans and English faded away, while the intermixture of Norman blood made the English more lively, enterprising, and refined.

Courts of Justice and Revenue reformed.—The two nations were also brought nearer together by the reform of justice in the courts. Henry, with the help of a very able justiciar, *Bishop Roger of Salisbury*, brought the revenue and laws of the kingdom into excellent order. He gave the people back their shire-moots, and the sheriffs came each year to the King's Court, or *Curia Regis*, to pay all rents, taxes, and fines; receiving in return *tallies*, or little strips of wood (so called from *tailler*, to cut), with notches cut on each side to mark the money paid; these were split down the middle, the court keeping one half and the sheriffs the other. The table on which the money was counted, had a chequered cloth like a chessboard, on which the sums were scored by counters. From this the counting-house became known as the *Court of the Exchequer*. Henry also sent justices or officers of the court round the country once every year to settle the taxes, inquire into dis-

putes, and receive complaints. In his time thieves and robbers were hanged, and evildoers severely punished, so that the country-folk lived more securely. The towns, too, bought many privileges, giving, as was the custom, an equivalent in money. London bought a special charter, by which the citizens had a sheriff and a justiciar of their own.

Henry I and Anselm.—With the church, matters did not go on quite so smoothly. Anselm and the king had a long dispute, because Anselm did not think it right that the king should elect the abbots and bishops, and so have the power of selling bishoprics, or keeping them vacant as William Rufus had done. At last, after Anselm had been banished for three years, Henry recalled him, and both gave way a little. Henry allowed the clergy to elect their own bishops, but the election had to be made in the King's Court, and the bishops did homage to the king for their lands.

Prince William drowned, 1120.—In the year 1120 Henry had a great sorrow, which brought years of suffering to England. His only son William was drowned in the *White Ship*, when crossing from Normandy to England. It is said that the king never smiled again. He had now only one child left, the Princess Matilda, widow of the Emperor of Germany. He married her to Count Geoffroy of Anjou, and made the English barons swear that she, and her baby boy after her, should succeed to the throne; a promise which, as we shall see, many of them did not keep.

Advances made in Henry's Reign.—Henry died in 1135 at his hunting seat in Normandy of a surfeit, caused by eating lampreys. His was one of the most important reigns in early English history, for in the course of it an English nobility was formed.

many English liberties were established, and the law-courts were reformed and started on a secure basis. During his time also new industries came into the country and trade increased. In 1105 some people from Flanders settled in Pembrokeshire, and brought with them the art of wool-weaving; and in 1128 Cistercian monks came from France to settle in the north and west of England, and became large breeders of sheep. Thus wool-growing and weaving were introduced into this country.

Nineteen Years of Anarchy under Stephen.—

The next nineteen years were one long tale of misery, bloodshed, and cruelty. Many of the barons did not want a woman to reign over them, and, before Matilda could be crowned, Stephen, Count of Boulogne, a son of Adela, William the Conqueror's daughter, came over and was elected king, and crowned Dec. 26, 1135. But a large number of barons kept their oath and took Matilda's side, and civil war broke out. Stephen was a brave soldier, but a weak governor. He quarrelled with his justiciar, Bishop Roger, and though he defeated Matilda's supporters and drove her out of England in 1147, he could not govern his own barons. These men, who cared chiefly for ravaging the country, fought with each other, and cruelly oppressed and tortured the English. "*Never was more misery,*" says the Chronicle, "*and never acted heathens worse than these.*"

Treaty of Wallingford, 1153.—At last, in 1153, Matilda's son Henry, now grown to manhood, came to England with an army, and Theobald, Archbishop of Canterbury, to avoid more bloodshed, persuaded Stephen to acknowledge him as his successor. Stephen died the next year, and Henry came to the throne.

CHAPTER IV

THE ANGEVIN OR PLANTAGENET KINGS

Henry II, 1154—Richard, 1189—John, 1199

Order restored under Henry II.—We have now seen how under Norman rule good laws grew up, and the kings kept the barons in check by being friends with the people. All this was upset for a time during Stephen's reign, but the laws were not altered, only disregarded. So when Henry II, an able, shrewd man, came to the throne, he soon restored order. He was the first king since the Conquest who was descended from the Saxons, his mother being the great-grandchild of Edmund Ironsides. But she was also half a Norman, and his father, Geoffroy, Count of Anjou, was a Frenchman.

Hence he was the first of the so-called *Angevin* (or Anjou) kings, who were also called *Plantagenets*, because Geoffroy used to wear a piece of broom, *planta genista*, in his hat. The Angevin kings ruled over an enormous territory; England, Normandy, Anjou, and almost the whole of the west of France, belonged to them. But Henry never neglected England, and he chose good ministers, who ruled well when he was away.

He began his reign by making the barons destroy the fortified castles they had built during the time of anarchy; he took back the royal lands which Stephen had given them, and he sent away the foreign troops. He also allowed the people to pay money called *scutage*, or "shield money," instead of being forced

to follow the barons to war. This gave them more time to sow and reap their crops, and it checked the power of the barons, while it gave the king money to pay soldiers for the foreign wars.

Circuits and Grand Jury established.—With the help of Archbishop Theobald, and of his new chancellor, a young man named Thomas Becket, Henry restored justice in the law courts and carried further the reforms his grandfather Henry I. had begun. He divided the country into six districts or *circuits*, round which the judges travelled, so as to visit the chief towns once every year; and he ordered that twelve men should be chosen in each place to give evidence as to the guilt of evildoers in their neighbourhood. These men were called *jurors*, from *juro*, I swear, and this was the beginning of our *Grand Jury*. Forty years later, in John's reign, the Grand Jury sent their prisoner on to another twelve men, who inquired more in detail and stated their final conclusion. This was the beginning of our *Petty Jury*, and the statement of these men was called their *verdict*, which means "truly said."

Quarrel between Henry and Becket.—For ten years there was peace in the land, and then trouble arose out of a quarrel between Becket and the king. Theobald died in 1161, and the next year Henry made Becket, who had become his greatest friend, Archbishop of Canterbury. Becket now thought it his duty to oppose Henry when he tried to rule the Church. They quarrelled first about the clergy, or *clerks*, paying taxes, and again because Becket objected to the clerks who committed crimes being judged in the lay-courts, because William I. had allowed them courts of their own. But as these clerks held a great many lay-offices, Henry would not yield. At last he drew up a document called the

“Constitutions of Clarendon,” in which the State and the King’s Court held a certain amount of control over the Church. All the bishops signed this document, and persuaded Becket to do the same. But the next day he repented, and asked the Pope’s forgiveness for having betrayed the interests of the Church. Henry was furious, and as the other bishops and barons took his side, Becket feared for his life and fled to France. But the quarrel went on, till after six years, the Pope forced Henry, who was then in France, to allow Becket to return. Unfortunately one of his first acts was to excommunicate those bishops who had been opposing him. When Henry heard of it he exclaimed, “Will no one rid me of this turbulent priest.” Four knights took him at his word, and crossing to England, murdered Becket in Canterbury Cathedral Dec. 29, 1170.

Henry, repentant, conquers his Enemies.—All Europe was filled with horror at this murder, and the king’s enemies took advantage of it. His sons, with help from the King of France, took up arms against him, while the King of the Scots invaded the north of England, and the barons rose in revolt. Henry himself was full of remorse, but his energy saved him. He did solemn penance at Becket’s tomb, and then defeated his foes one after the other. At the end of a year the country was at peace again, and the king’s power stronger than ever.

Henry II Lord of Ireland, 1171.—He thought it prudent, however, to be out of England for a short time after Becket’s murder, so he went to Ireland, where he lived for a year, and received the homage of the Irish chiefs. For it was in his reign that the Conquest of Ireland began, when Earl Pembroke, surnamed “Strongbow,” went to help one of the petty kings, Dermot of Leinster, in 1166. Still

three hundred years passed before the English really governed in Ireland.

Militia established—Growth of English Towns.

—Henry made one more important change before his death. In 1181 he reintroduced the old West Saxon law of *fyrd*, or military service, by which all freemen pledged themselves to protect their king and country in times of danger. This was the foundation of our *militia*, a body of national trained soldiers, who are only called out to defend the country. In Henry's reign, and those of the next two kings, the towns began to grow in importance. From very early times men had bound themselves into *Guilds* to help one another in difficulties. These guilds were something like the Trade Unions of our time—merchants, goldsmiths, tailors, weavers, each had their guild; these, in later times, became very powerful in the large towns. Henry II favoured the towns, for they were a great support to the king when the barons rebelled against him. Moreover, as we have seen, they often paid large sums of money for privileges granted them by charter.

Death of Henry II, 1189.—The death of this able and wise king was sad. Though a man of great feeling he did not win the love of his sons. He conquered them once, and two afterwards died, but the two who still lived, again rebelled against him. His son Richard drove him out of Touraine, and Henry, sick and worn out, saw the name of his favourite son John also among the rebels. "Now," said he, "let all things go as they will, I care no more for myself or the world," and two days later he died.

An absent King, 1189-1199.—The ten years during which Richard Cœur-de-Lion, son of Henry, was King of England, are of very little interest. Richard only visited England twice during his reign,

and then only for a few months each time, chiefly to collect money for his wars. For the first four years he was fighting bravely in the Crusades, and on his return was taken prisoner in Germany. Two able ministers, Archbishop Hubert and Geoffrey Fitz-Peter, justiciar, governed the country, which went on quietly because Henry II had established good laws. The only disturber of the peace was John, Richard's younger brother, who, though kept in check by his mother Eleanor, always hoped to seize the throne. He tried to plot with the Emperor of Germany to keep Richard prisoner, but the people of England loved their brave Lion-hearted king, though he was a stranger to them, and paid his ransom. When he returned home he banished his treacherous brother, but did not otherwise punish him. Richard was shot by an arrow while besieging the castle of Chalus, near Limoges, in 1199, and died bravely as he had lived. He ordered that the soldier who shot him should be set at liberty, but after his death the man was cruelly killed.

First Mayor of London—War Taxes.—The only events of importance in this reign were the election of the first *Mayor* of London, who had great power in the city, and the refusal of the bishops to pay taxes to be spent in foreign wars. The nation began to think that the people ought to have a voice in their own taxation, and they forced the justiciar to call lawful meetings when he levied money.

John's Tyranny and England's Resistance.—John, Henry the Second's younger son, who now came to the throne, was an instance of how a bad weak man wishing to do evil, may sometimes work good by rousing every one against him. He was handsome and cruel, avaricious and treacherous, and no man loved or trusted him. The real heir to the

throne of England and the possessions in France was a young lad named *Arthur*, the son of John's elder brother Geoffrey, who was dead. The French barons refused to have John to govern them, and a war broke out which lasted three years, till John took young Arthur prisoner and shut him up in the New Tower at Rouen. He was never seen again, and all Europe accused John of having murdered him. As he refused to clear himself of this accusation, the King of France took away his lands, and in a few years he lost all the rest of his possessions abroad. This was a good thing for England, whose kings and nobles had now no interests out of the country.

Quarrel with the Pope.—John's next quarrel arose out of the election of an archbishop. When Archbishop Hubert died in 1205 the monks of Canterbury elected one Archbishop of Canterbury, and John chose another. As neither would yield they appealed to the Pope, and he put both men aside, and made the monks elect Stephen Langton, a good upright man. John obstinately refused to receive him, so the Pope laid the country under an *interdict*, which forbade the clergy to baptise, marry, or bury any one, or to read the prayers for the dying. This caused great unhappiness, and when the barons pressed John to yield, he only replied by treating them cruelly and seizing the goods of the bishops and clergy. Then after two years the Pope excommunicated John himself, and declaring him to be no longer king, authorised the King of France to invade England. This frightened John, and he at last allowed Langton to take his office.

The Magna Charta, or Great Charter, 1215.—All this time John had been governing with great tyranny and cruelty, and at last the barons and people, supported by Archbishop Langton and Fitz-Peter,

the justiciar, determined to have their rights according to the Charter of Henry I. They called upon John to sign a charter, but he evaded their demand, and secretly engaged hired troops to crush them. The barons were too quick for him; they flew to arms, and all the people joined them. John was forced to yield, and at *Runnymede*, a meadow near Windsor, he signed the *Great Charter*, which among other stipulations, gave all men a right to be judged by their equals, and not to be punished at the king's pleasure. It also forbade the king to levy taxes, except with the consent of the barons and bishops. This charter was not very different from the earlier ones; but they had been *given* by the kings. This one was drawn up by the nation, which was now strong enough to *force* the king to govern according to law.

John did not keep his sworn promise. He brought in his foreign troops, and civil war followed. The barons invited Prince Louis of France to come and be their king, and he had already reached London, and gained a large part of England, when John fell ill, and died at Newark Oct. 19, 1216. His death was said to have been hastened by the loss of his jewels and his crown when crossing the Wash in the Fens of Lincolnshire. He left two young sons, the elder, Henry, being only nine years old.

CHAPTER V

THE GROWTH OF PARLIAMENT

Henry III, 1216—Edward I, 1272—Edward II, 1307—
Edward III, 1327—Richard II, 1377

Sixteen Years of Good Government. — Little Prince Henry was crowned at Gloucester, with a plain

gold circlet, ten days after his father's death. Prince Louis still went on fighting, but the barons no longer supported him. He was defeated at Lincoln the next year and returned to France.

For sixteen years the country was now well governed by Archbishop Langton, and the justiciar, Hubert de Burgh. Henry III, it is true, took up his authority when he was twenty, but his ministers really ruled as his *private council*, which was the beginning of our *Privy Council*. During this time the land was prosperous. The harvests were on the whole good, and trade increased. The labourers, well fed, and no longer oppressed by civil war, worked at peace in the fields in summer, and enjoyed themselves at the annual *fairs* held all over the country. In the winter they made their own tools and clothes, and amused themselves with wrestling and archery. Some of them bought permission from their lord to go and trade in the towns, and others served the king in foreign wars. The troubles of John's reign had left scarcely any traces except in the robbers and freebooters, such as Bold Robin Hood and Friar Tuck, who lived in the woods, and infested the roads, levying blackmail on wealthy travellers.

Struggle between the Barons and Foreigners.—

After a time, however, the weakness of the king's character began to show itself and to work mischief. Henry III was not a bad man, he was only hopelessly weak and thriftless, and therefore never true to himself or to others. When Archbishop Langton died in 1228 the king allowed the Pope to collect heavy taxes from the English clergy, and to fill the bishoprics and livings with Italian priests. In 1232 he also became jealous of Hubert de Burgh and, depriving him of his justiciarship, took the government into his own hands, employing mere clerks

instead of great ministers. After this all went badly. Henry had several young French step-brothers, and he had also married a French wife, Eleanor of Provence. The consequence was that a large number of foreigners flocked to England, and he gave them many of the chief posts and castles in the kingdom. He was also very extravagant, and always fighting in France to try and get back what his father John had lost. Therefore he had to come year after year to the earls, barons, and bishops for large sums of money. These were granted him in the assemblies, which were now for the first time called *Parliaments* (from *parler*, to speak). But the nobles gave the money very unwillingly, and tried each time to make the king keep his promise to appoint a proper justiciar, chancellor, and treasurer.

Simon de Montfort. — Even the king's own brother-in-law, Earl Simon de Montfort, took the lead of the barons in pressing upon Henry the necessity for better government. But the king was so weak that, though he promised to send away the foreigners, he did not do it, and during twenty-two years matters grew worse. At last, in 1258, the barons came to the Parliament at Oxford fully armed, and forced Henry and his eldest son Edward to swear to give back the castles to Englishmen, to appoint a proper privy council and ministers, and to hold three parliaments in each year. Then most of the foreigners left England. But again Henry did not keep his word. He persuaded the Pope to absolve him from his oath, seized the Tower, and ordered the people not to obey the barons' officers.

The Baron's War, 1264.—Then the barons flew to arms. They did indeed agree to refer the quarrel to Louis IX of France, but when he upheld the king's absolute authority at the *Mise* (or arbitration)

of *Amiens*, most of the barons, and 15,000 Londoners, joined Earl Simon and raised the standard of war. The rest of the barons joined the king, and the two parties met and fought near Lewes May 24, 1264. The barons gained the victory, and the king and Prince Edward were taken prisoners.

Simon de Montfort's Parliament.—Earl Simon now ruled for a year in the king's name. It was he who first caused two knights from each shire, and two citizens from each borough to be elected to sit in Parliament with the barons and clergy, so that the *Commons* or general community had representatives to speak for them. But Simon could not keep his party together. The other barons became jealous of him, and the people wanted the king out of prison. So when Prince Edward escaped from his guards while out riding in 1265, he found many to join him. He marched quickly against Earl Simon, and won a complete victory at Evesham in Worcestershire. Earl Simon was killed in the battle.

The Dictum of Kenilworth, 1266.—Soon after this, peace was made at Kenilworth, and the last years of Henry's reign were quiet. Prince Edward went to the Crusades, and in 1272 Henry III died after a troubled reign of fifty-six years.

Good Laws of Edward I.—Prince Edward, who now came to the throne, was one of England's best kings. He was brave and truthful, and strove to give the people good laws. There was no justiciar after Hubert de Burgh, for the future the *Chancellor* was the chief minister. Robert Burnell was the first great Chancellor of England, and with his help useful law reforms were made. The land laws were carefully revised and the law courts reorganised. In order to stop the highwaymen and large bands of lawless men who infested the country, a law was passed binding

every man to put them down by force of arms, and in 1285 *Keepers of the Peace* were appointed, one in each shire to see that crime was punished. This was the origin of our *Justices of the Peace* or County Magistrates. The only blot in all these reforms was the banishment of the Jews, of whom the people were jealous, because they became so rich through usury; Edward sent them all away from England, nor did they return till the time of Cromwell.

The Conquest of Wales, 1277-1282. — While these reforms were being made Edward was engaged at different times fighting in Wales. Llewellyn, the Prince of Wales, had fought under Earl Simon, and refused to do homage to Edward. He was conquered and made to submit, but his brother David, a restless adventurer, persuaded him to rebel again in 1282, and the king took an army into Wales to subdue the rebellion. Brave Prince Llewellyn was killed, and his brother justly suffered the death of a traitor. Edward remained a whole year in Wales and gave the people good laws; from this time Wales was joined to England, though it did not send members to Parliament till the reign of Henry VIII. Thus England now became one country, for Strathclyde and West Wales (Devon and Cornwall) had been absorbed long before. In 1284, while Edward I. was in Wales, his son Edward was born at Carnarvon. The king made him *Prince of Wales* in 1301, and since then the eldest son of the sovereign has always borne that title.

The First Complete Parliament, 1295. — The Welsh wars cost a great deal of money, and this led to an important step in the growth of Parliament. In early days only landowners had been taxed; but as the country grew richer, townspeople and others paid taxes on their personal possessions, and there

was often much difficulty in levying these scattered taxes. Therefore when Edward was short of money he adopted Simon de Montfort's plan of summoning knights and citizens to Parliament to vote supplies from the people. This brought back in a certain way the old Saxon principle, when all the freemen sent their aldermen to vote in the Witan. The first complete Parliament summoned by a king was held in 1295. Nobles, commons, and clergy sat together at first; but in later parliaments the clergy left, and had an assembly of their own called *Convocation*; and in Edward the Third's reign the nobles and the commons first sat in separate chambers. In all the main points, however, the Parliament of 1295 was like our own. In 1297 the commons gained still further power by refusing to allow the king to levy money without their consent, and *then only after the grievances of the people had been redressed*.

War of Scottish Independence, 1296-1314.—A year after the meeting of the first complete Parliament Edward was drawn into a war with Scotland. Alexander III of Scotland and his little granddaughter died one after the other, and there was no direct heir to the throne. The Scotch nobles therefore asked Edward, as overlord, to decide between two claimants, John Baliol and Robert Bruce. He chose John Baliol, who did homage to Edward, and all seemed well. But Edward wanted more power as feudal lord than the Scots thought fair. He required the Scotch nobles to follow him to the wars, and allowed appeals from the decisions of the Scotch law courts to be made to him at Westminster. This caused a very bad feeling, and, as war broke out just at this time with France, the Scotch nobles sided with the French king, and attacked the north of England. Edward was very angry. He marched

north with a large army, defeated the Scots at several points, and took Baliol back with him a prisoner to England, together with the crown jewels and the *sacred stone of Scone* on which the Scotch kings were crowned. This stone forms the seat of the coronation chair at Westminster to this day.

William Wallace, the Patriot.—But Scotland was not conquered. William Wallace, a brave outlawed knight, gathered an army together, and defeating the English at the Bridge of Stirling, proclaimed himself *Guardian of the Realm* in Baliol's name. Edward was just then in Flanders fighting the French king and much in want of money, and it was all these difficulties which led him to sign a charter promising never to take money without the consent of Parliament. As soon as he came back he took the field against Wallace, and defeated him at the Battle of Falkirk (1298). Wallace escaped, and refusing the king's clemency, he was taken seven years afterwards and executed.

Robert Bruce, King of Scotland.—Still the war was not over. The Scots found a new leader in Robert Bruce, the grandson of the Bruce who had claimed the crown. Young Bruce escaped from England, and having killed Earl Comyn, who would have made peace with Edward, he gathered the nobles around him and was crowned king of Scotland March 25, 1306. Ill, old, and careworn, Edward started northwards once more, sending the Earl of Pembroke forward with an army. The earl was victorious; he took many Scottish nobles prisoners, and drove Bruce a fugitive into the Grampians, where the story is told of him that he watched a spider which tried six times in vain to attach its thread across a corner, and succeeded the seventh time; and this encouraged Bruce to try again. Meanwhile

Edward had crept up to the border, and there he died at Burgh-upon-the-Sands, near Carlisle (1307). He left three commands for his son : *First*, to subdue Scotland ; *secondly*, to send his heart to the Holy Land ; and *thirdly*, never to recall Piers Gaveston, a profligate Gascon, whom he had banished.

Folly and Disobedience of Edward II.—The new king disobeyed all these commands. Returning south he buried his father at Westminster, and, recalling Gaveston, put him at the head of the government, and these two spent their time in revelry and riotous living. For one year Parliament even took the government away from this frivolous king, and Gaveston was exiled and sent to govern Ireland. He soon returned, but was taken by the barons, and beheaded in 1312 by command of his mortal enemy the Earl of Warwick.

Battle of Bannockburn, 1314.—While Edward II was fooling, Bruce was working. Little by little he conquered all the lost territory, and threatened to march over the border. Roused at last, Edward went against him with an army, and the two kings met face to face on the opposite side of a little brook or *burn* called the *Bannock*. Here was fought the famous Battle of Bannockburn. Bruce had dug covered pits in front of his position, and into these the English knights and their horses fell in hopeless disorder. At this moment a body of Scottish camp followers were seen coming down an adjacent hill, and the terrified English thinking that another enemy was approaching, turned and fled. Bruce won the battle. Scotland was again a separate kingdom, and remained so for the next 300 years.

Edward Dethroned and Murdered.—For nine years longer Edward II reigned, doing no good to any one. His new favourites, the two Despensers,

misgoverned the kingdom, and quarrelled with the barons, and the country suffered much from famine and cattle plague. Edward's own wife turned against him at last, and came from France with her son Edward, and her favourite nobleman, Lord Mortimer, to overthrow her husband and put her son on the throne. The king fled with the Despensers to Wales, but was taken prisoner. Parliament declared him unfit to reign; his staff of office was broken, and his son proclaimed king Jan. 7, 1327. Eight months later he was brutally murdered in Berkeley Castle by order of Lord Mortimer.

The Commons gained still more power in this reign, because the king wanted to keep the nobles in check; and thus during the reign of two weak kings, and one able and wise king, England had grown in strength. Parliament which, when Henry I. was on the throne, was only an assembly of nobles and clergy, now at Edward II's death represented the whole country, and held the "power of the purse." Wales had become part of England, and though Scotland had conquered in the long struggle, it was better for England to be without the overlordship, which did not mean real control, and only brought constant warfare.

Causes of the Hundred Years' War.—The most important events of the next two reigns were—the beginning of the "Hundred Years' War" with France,—and the increasing demands of the people and of Parliament in England. The one event grew out of the other, because, as the country was drained of men and money in the war, labour was worth more on the one hand, and on the other the Commons could make their own terms with the kings when they needed fresh grants.

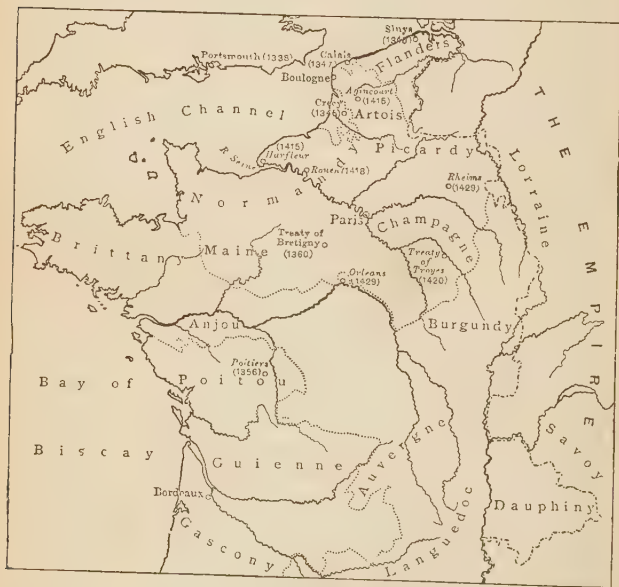
The war with France began from three causes:

First, because the king of France helped the Scots to attack England; *secondly*, because the people of Flanders, who had a large wool trade with England, asked Edward to protect them from France; and *thirdly*, because Guienne, which then belonged to England, had been seized by the French king. Edward III, when he was nineteen, had taken the government from his mother Isabella into his own hands. He now, in 1337, declared war against Philip VI, and the first battle was fought when the French attacked *Portsmouth* in 1338. But Edward made one great mistake. To make his cause stronger he claimed the crown of France, because his mother, Isabella, was sister of the late king, while Philip was only his cousin. This was a groundless claim, because by the *Salic* law of France the succession could not descend through the female line: by making it Edward began an almost endless war, which had nothing to do with England except that it drained the country of men and money.

Chief Stages of the War in Edward III's reign.

—The war during Edward's reign may be divided into three stages. In the *first stage* the English archers gained the famous battle of *Crécy* (1346) over the knights of France (see Map, p. 42). In this battle gunpowder was first used, and Edward, Prince of Wales, called the *Black Prince*, won his knightly spurs. Then followed the siege of Calais (1346-1347) when good Queen Philippa, Edward's wife, gained his pardon for the citizens, and Calais became an English town for 200 years. After this there was peace for a time, till the *second stage* began in 1355, and the Black Prince won the memorable battle of *Poitiers* (Sept. 1356) by ordering his archers to shoot across a narrow lane down which the French rode to the attack. In this battle King John II of

France and his son were taken prisoners, and John was sent to England, where he died in 1364. Four years after the battle of Poitiers, a peace was signed at Bretigny (1360), by which Edward ruled over a large part of France, but gave up his claim to the crown. In the *third stage* (1367-1374) the English lost ground



Walker & Boutall, sc.

again. The Black Prince was ill and irritable, and Charles V, who then reigned in France, was wily, and would not risk open battle. He harassed the English in skirmishes, and after the Black Prince returned to England in 1371, the French reconquered all except Calais, Bordeaux, and Bayonne.

Progress in England.—Meanwhile the English

people had been advancing steadily. The nobles liked the war, and, wanting money for it, let their ground on *leases* or long terms, receiving rent called *feorm* in return. This was the beginning of rented *farms* and the independent farmer. About this time also a number of Flemish weavers came over and settled in Norfolk, Suffolk, and Essex, and from them the English learnt cloth-weaving; while the taking of Calais made it safe for English ships to pass along the Channel, so that trade flourished with Normandy, Gascony, and Flanders.

The Black Death.—But sorrow was at hand. In 1348 a terrible plague called the *Black Death* came over the continent to England, and more than one-third of the people of England died. There were not enough labourers left to till the fields, especially as so many were gone to the war. Those who remained asked higher wages, while the landowners, who got less money for their meat and crops, because there were fewer people to feed, were not inclined to pay more.

Statute of Labourers.—Therefore, as the landowners made the laws in Parliament, they passed a law called the *Statute of Labourers*, ordaining that the people must work for the same wages as before the Black Death, and also must work each on his own lord's estate. In this way they prevented a man from going to those who offered to pay more. The labourers chafed under this tyranny, and their discontent was strengthened by the teaching of John Wiclif, Master of Baliol, Oxford. Wiclif, who was the first of the Reformers, wished to revive religion and to help the lower classes. He translated the Bible into English, and sent out priests, afterwards called *Lollards*, to preach that men are equal in God's sight, and that those who rule must be just to rich and poor alike.

Growing Power of Parliament.—For the time, however, all remained quiet. Years passed, and Edward the Third's reign was drawing to a close. Parliament had made a good deal of progress during the reign. When Edward was angry with his minister, Archbishop Stratford, for not producing enough money for the war, Parliament defended Stratford, and claimed that a minister must be judged by his peers and not by the king only. Also they would not let the king levy tolls on wool without consent of Parliament, and they refused to pay heavy tribute to the Pope, or to let the Pope put foreigners into English livings. And now when Edward was old, and his third son, John of Gaunt, Duke of Lancaster, tried to seize the power and choose his own ministers, Parliament took a bold step. The Commons accused or *impeached* the ministers before the House of Lords, saying that they levied wrongful taxes. They gained the day, and the ministers were dismissed.

The First Poll-Tax, 1377.—Yet the next year (1376), when the Black Prince died, John of Gaunt managed to come back to power, and Parliament, in 1377, being very short of money, levied a new tax, called the *poll-tax*, of so much a head on every person. That same year Edward III died, and his grandson Richard, son of the Black Prince, became king as Richard II, when eleven years old. For a few years all went quietly. A council governed; but John of Gaunt, though not on the council, had great power as Richard's uncle. The war still went on, and as the poll-tax became heavier every year the smouldering discontent waxed hotter and hotter.

Wat Tyler's Rebellion, 1381.—A small event set it ablaze. John Dartford, a tiler by trade, killed a poll-tax collector, who insulted his daughter. As if

by common consent the people in the east of England rose in a mass from Yorkshire to Kent. A hundred thousand men under Wat Tyler of Kent and Jack Straw of Essex marched on London, burnt the Savoy Palace, the home of John of Gaunt, broke into the Tower Palace, and murdered the archbishop. It was the young king, then only sixteen, who put down the rebellion. Twice he rode in among the people, and when Wat Tyler was struck down by the Mayor of London, and the people cried, "Kill, kill, our captain is killed,"—"I am your captain," replied Richard, "follow me." He gave the people written charters abolishing the oppressions of which they complained, and they went home. At first they gained nothing, for Parliament refused to recognise the charters, and many of the rioters were put to death. But the nobles saw the danger of villeinage, and gradually during the next hundred and fifty years free labour took its place.

Richard II and his Lords.—The rest of Richard's reign, from 1389 to 1399, was almost entirely taken up with a struggle for power between himself and the great lords. The nobles, and especially Richard's uncles, John of Gaunt Duke of Lancaster, and the Duke of Gloucester, tried to keep him in tutelage; but in 1389 he suddenly demanded the Great Seal, and governed for eight years wisely and well. In 1396 he married, as his second wife, the little eight-year old daughter of the French king, and thus arranged a truce for twenty-five years.

Then, when he felt strong enough, he revenged himself upon his chief opponents. The Duke of Gloucester was probably murdered, Earl Arundel was executed, and Earl Warwick imprisoned for life. John of Gaunt Duke of Lancaster, was away in Spain, but his son, Henry Bolingbroke, was a favourite

with the people. So Richard took advantage of a quarrel between him and the Duke of Norfolk to banish them both, and to confiscate Bolingbroke's estates. The king had now for some time reigned as an absolute monarch, and this ruined him. He began to oppress the people with taxes, and to interfere with the courts of justice, and made himself hated. In 1399 John of Gaunt died, and Henry Bolingbroke, now Duke of Lancaster, came over to recover his property.

Abdication and Death of Richard II.—Richard was away in Ireland, and the nobles and people, tired of his rule, joined Henry. The king on his return was taken prisoner in Wales, and sent to the Tower, where he was made to sign a deed of resignation Sept. 29, 1399. Next day Parliament elected Henry, Duke of Lancaster, king, under the title of Henry IV. A year later Richard was said to have died, but how he came to his end is not known.

CHAPTER VI

THE HOUSES OF LANCASTER AND YORK

Henry IV, 1399	Edward IV, 1461
Henry V, 1413	Edward V, 1463
Henry VI, 1422	Richard III, 1483

Unsettled Succession for Eighty Years.—The next three kings belonged to the House of Lancaster, yet they were not the direct heirs to the throne. The real heir was a boy of six years old, Edmund Mortimer, Earl of March, the great grandson of an elder son of Edward III. Henry IV was only king because Parliament elected him, and two conse-

quences followed : *First*, he had to pay more attention to the wishes of Parliament ; and *secondly*, for eighty years no king had undisputed possession of the throne, there was always some one else who had a claim and was ready to fight for it. This led to the *Wars of the Roses*, in which the great nobles suffered terribly and lost much of their power.

The first part of Henry's reign was full of rebellions. The lords conspired to bring back Richard ; the Welsh prince Owen Glendower rebelled ; and at the same time the Earls Percy rose in Northumberland ; but they were defeated, and Harry Hotspur, the Duke of Northumberland's son, was killed. At last, after another conspiracy to put the young Earl of March on the throne, the old Duke of Northumberland was killed in 1408, Glendower driven out of Wales, and for the last four years of Henry IV's reign he had peace.

Law against Heresy, 1401.—There were very few events in this reign which concerned the nation, for the wars were chiefly among the nobles and their retainers. The Commons succeeded at last in getting full powers over money grants, and they passed one unhappy law, allowing heretics to be burnt alive. This law, which caused fearful suffering for more than 250 years, was passed chiefly because the king, the Parliament, and the clergy were all afraid of the *Lollards*, who preached equality and the rights of the poor.

England Prosperous under Henry V.—Henry V was twenty-five years of age when he succeeded his father. He was a brilliant soldier, able statesman, and the idol of the English people. He had also two very good ministers, his brother the Duke of Bedford, and Beaufort, bishop of Winchester. In the first year of his reign he granted a boon to the Commons,

namely that their petitions or *bills* should not be *altered* by the king, but either refused, or, if accepted, should become *statutes* in the same form as they had been passed in Parliament. The kingdom was prosperous, in spite of a return of the Black Death in 1407. Labour was becoming free, yeomen and farmers rented their farms; new treaties of commerce were made with Holland, the Baltic towns, Venice, and other countries; the coal trade was becoming important; and the merchants of London, among whom *Dick Whittington*, Lord Mayor of London, was one, grew rich and powerful. The only disturbances were caused by the Lollards, and even these began to decrease after a revolt under Sir John Oldcastle in 1414 was put down and the ringleaders executed. Unfortunately Henry V only reigned nine years, and he began afresh the war with France.

Renewal of the Hundred Years' War.—It so happened that the French king, Charles VI, was out of his mind, and the French nobles quarrelled among themselves. Ambitious, and fond of war, Henry V saw his chance, and, though he had no real right, he claimed the French crown, and declared war, August 1415. His first success was at the siege of *Harfleur* (see Map, p. 42), then he moved on towards Calais, but was checked at *Agincourt* by the French army, and a severe battle took place October 1415. Although Henry had only 9000 men against an army of 60,000, the old skill prevailed, and the English archers overcame the French horsemen. Eleven thousand Frenchmen lay dead on the field. Two years later Henry reconquered Normandy, and besieged *Rouen*, which fell in 1418. The next year he took *Ponthoise* and threatened Paris. Just then, in consequence of quarrels among themselves, one of the most powerful of the French nobles, the Duke of Burgundy, joined

Henry, who was thus strong enough to make a treaty at Troyes May 1420, by which he became Regent of France, and successor to the French throne. He also married Katharine of France, the daughter of the poor mad king.

On Dec. 6, 1421 a young English prince was born of this marriage and named Henry. Eight months later Henry V died, and Charles VI of France soon followed him. The little English baby prince, when only ten months old, was King of England and France.

Reign of Henry VI, 1422-1461.—If Henry the Fifth's reign was short and brilliant, his son's was long and disastrous, both for himself and others. While he was a child a council governed. When he grew up he was gentle and weak, a tool in the hands of others, and before he reached middle age he had frequent attacks of insanity, inherited doubtless from his French grandfather. All through his reign England was really governed by the great nobles, who quarrelled among themselves. The only acts Henry VI performed himself, were to found Eton School and King's College, Cambridge. The Duke of Bedford was made *Protector of the Realm*; but as he was also *Regent of France*, the Duke of Gloucester governed in his absence with the help of a council. Gloucester quarrelled so much with Beaufort the Chancellor, that at last Beaufort retired till Henry was crowned in 1429, and then Beaufort came back and held the chief power.

End of the Hundred Years' War.—Meanwhile the English had misfortunes in France. At first Bedford gained great victories; but in 1429 a young peasant girl, Jeanne Darc, who believed herself to be inspired, took the command of the French soldiers and raised the *siege of Orleans*. The English

were panic-stricken, while the French believed Jeanne to be a messenger from God. She led the victorious army to Rheims, where Charles VII was crowned King of France July 1429. Then she begged to go home, but Charles would not let her go, and in the end she was betrayed to the English and burnt alive. But she had done her work. After her death the English were gradually driven out of France. Bedford died two years later, and in the year 1453 *the Hundred Years' War came to an end, and Calais alone remained to the English.*

Two Rival Factions.—Before this, in the year 1445, Henry VI had married a French princess, Margaret of Anjou, and she ruled her husband and governed the country through her favourite ministers Suffolk and Somerset. These ministers had, however, powerful enemies. Gloucester died in 1447, and *Richard, Duke of York*, became heir to the throne. He thought therefore that he ought to have the chief power, and the earls of Warwick and Salisbury sided with him.

Jack Cade's Rebellion, 1450.—England was at this time very uneasy. The people were angry at the defeats in France, and the ministers were very unpopular. Suffolk was impeached, and murdered on his way to exile; and soon after the men of Kent rose under a certain *Jack Cade*, entered London, and murdered Lord Saye the treasurer. The rebels, who had no real grievances except their dislike to the Government, were defeated and dispersed, but discontent was rife, and just at this time Henry VI became insane. The Council dismissed Somerset and appointed the Duke of York *Protector*. Next year, however, Henry recovered, and Somerset was recalled, and meanwhile a young prince, Edward of Lancaster, was born in 1453. The Duke of York,

disappointed at being no longer Protector nor heir to the throne, took up arms against the queen and Somerset.

Wars of the Roses.—Thus began the *Wars of the Roses*, in which the Lancastrians, or queen's party, wore a *red rose* as a badge, while the Yorkists chose a *white rose*. In the first battle at St. Albans (1455) Somerset was killed, and for the next six years there was a constant struggle; now one party, now the other, having the upper hand. At last, in the battle of Northampton (July 1460), Henry VI was taken prisoner, and Margaret fled with her son to Scotland. The Duke of York now claimed the crown, and in truth he had, in one sense, a strong claim, for he belonged to an older branch of Edward III's family than the Lancastrians. They only reigned because Parliament, years before, had *elected* Henry IV. But the Lords would not give the crown away from Henry VI; they only promised that Richard should succeed him. A few months later all was reversed again. Margaret collected an army and defeated the Yorkists at Wakefield December 1460, and Richard was killed in the battle.

Edward IV (of York).—Then Richard's eldest son, Edward, who became Duke of York by his father's death, took up the contest. He defeated the Lancastrians at the battle of *Mortimer's Cross* in Herefordshire (1461), and marched to London. Before he arrived Queen Margaret had defeated Earl Warwick at St. Albans, and released the king, whom she carried off to the north. But she was not strong enough to check Edward, who entered London, and was declared king March 4, 1461. Immediately afterwards he hastened with Earl Warwick to the north, and a fearful battle took place at *Towton Field*, in Yorkshire, March 29, 1461, in which nearly

20,000 men were killed on each side. The Yorkists gained the victory. Margaret and Henry VI fled to Scotland, and Edward IV was crowned at Westminster June 2, 1461.

Warwick the "King-maker." — But he did not reign in peace. The Earl of Warwick, angry because he married Elizabeth Woodville, widow of a Lancastrian knight, deserted him and joined Queen Margaret. In 1470 poor mad Henry was again put upon the throne for six months, and Edward fled to Flanders. This gained for Warwick the name of the *King-maker*. But Edward returned, and with the help of the Duke of Burgundy, defeated Margaret at the battle of *Tewkesbury* May 4, 1471. Her son, young Edward of Lancaster, was stabbed after the battle, and Henry VI died a fortnight afterwards in the Tower. Margaret was ransomed by her father, King René, and returned to France.

Decline of the Power of Parliament.—Edward IV was now secure on his throne, and he had plenty of money at his command, for a large number of nobles on both sides had either been killed in the late wars, or *attainted*—that is, found guilty of treason, and their estates and wealth forfeited to the crown. Moreover, in the prospect of a war with France, which never took place, Edward had appealed to the rich merchants for presents of money called *benevolences*, and they had given willingly to a strong king who kept the land quiet. The result of this was that Edward, not needing money, did not summon Parliament regularly. For eight years no Parliament sat. Therefore, though the middle class was growing important, the power of Parliament was less, especially now the great lords were weak, and the election of the commoners had gradually fallen into the hands of the landowners. Edward had no

one to check him but his council, and over that he kept a firm hand. Even his own brother, Clarence, was put to death on a charge of treason.

Introduction of Printing, 1476. — Nevertheless his rule, though arbitrary, was just, and the country prospered. It was during his reign that William Caxton, patronised by the king and by Richard Duke of Gloucester, set up the first printing-press in the corner of the Sanctuary, Westminster.

Reign of Edward V, April to June 1483. — Peace, however, did not last long. Edward IV died in April 1483, leaving two young sons, Edward aged thirteen and Richard aged ten. The queen wished to be "Guardian of the Realm," but the council appointed the Duke of Gloucester *Protector*. He at once took the boys away from their mother, and spread a report that the princes were illegitimate because Edward IV had been betrothed to another lady before he married their mother. A short time after he caused Earl Hastings, a blunt and honest nobleman, to be beheaded on the plea of treason, and then accepted the crown from the Lords and Commons. Edward V therefore was never crowned. The pomp prepared for him served for the coronation of his uncle on July 6, 1483. Directly after his coronation Richard went north with his queen, and men whispered to each other that the young princes had been murdered. Richard never denied it, and, 200 years later, the bodies of two boys were found under the Tower staircase.

Reign of Richard III, 1483-1485. — After the disappearance of the young princes Richard's peace of mind left him, though he ruled well for two years. He was the first to introduce *consuls* to protect English people in foreign lands; he also instituted couriers to carry letters, a kind of primitive *postal service*; and

he passed a law against the *benevolences* which Edward IV had imposed. But he knew he was hated, and that there were plots against him. In fact the Duke of Buckingham, formerly his friend, was planning that Henry Tudor, Duke of Richmond (a Lancastrian descended from John of Gaunt), should marry Elizabeth of York, Edward IV's daughter, and depose Richard. The first attempt failed, and Buckingham was beheaded. But the plot went on, and on Aug. 7, 1485 Henry of Richmond landed at Milford Haven, in Pembrokeshire. Many nobles and their retainers joined him, and a fortnight later he met Richard at *Market Bosworth*, near Leicester. Richard's own followers deserted him, and he died fighting in the thick of the battle. His crown was found under a bush and placed on Henry's head.

Thus ended the Wars of the Roses. Henry Tudor, who now became *Henry VII* had scarcely any claim to the throne. His father was the son of a Welsh gentleman, Owen Tudor, who married Katharine of France, widow of Henry V of England; and though his mother was descended from John of Gaunt, this gave him no real title. But men wanted peace, and, by marrying Elizabeth of York, Henry healed the old feud. It shows how weary every one was of bloodshed, treachery, and murder, that Parliament welcomed the new king and queen as settling the quarrel between York and Lancaster.

CHAPTER VII

THE REFORMATION

Henry VII, 1485—Henry VIII, 1509

Strong Rule of the Tudors.—The close of the Wars of the Roses brings us to the end of the *Middle Ages* in England. During these ages the *barons*, or peers of the realm, and the *bishops*, or peers of the church, had held the chief power under the king. But the late wars had destroyed many of the old nobility and enriched the king at their expense; while the clergy no longer held all the chief posts in the kingdom. The gentry and middle class had long been increasing in wealth and importance; yet, having lost their old leaders the barons, they had not yet learnt to act together. And so it came to pass that for the next 200 years the sovereign had almost absolute authority. Parliament only met once during the last thirteen years of Henry VII's reign, and had very little influence under the Tudor kings and queens. Fortunately these monarchs ruled, on the whole, wisely, and the nation grew strong. When Henry VII came to the throne the nobles who remained were still very powerful, and had large bodies of retainers, to whom they gave badges, and promised to *maintain* or protect them in their quarrels. Henry taxed this custom of *maintenance* very heavily, and he set up a special court called the *Star Chamber* to judge such offenders as were strong enough to overawe the ordinary courts in their own neighbourhood. He also began again to collect *benevolences*, and in this and other ways he

grew rich, and left two millions of money in the treasury when he died, besides curbing the power of the nobles.

Disturbances at Home.—Yet he had trouble in the first years of his reign, for two impostors were set up to claim the throne. One, *Lambert Simnel*, the son of an Oxford joiner, pretended to be the son of the late Duke of Clarence. He found support in Ireland, but was defeated in England, and became a scullion in the king's kitchen. The other, *Perkin Warbeck*, pretended that he was Richard, Duke of York, and had escaped when Edward V was murdered. He obtained help from France and Scotland, and gave Henry trouble for five years from 1492-97. He was at last sent to the Tower, and afterwards executed in 1499.

Diplomacy Abroad.—France and Spain were now both becoming very powerful countries, and Henry, wishing for an ally against France, married his eldest son Arthur at fifteen years of age to Katharine of Aragon, daughter of the King of Spain. A few months later, before the marriage was complete, Prince Arthur died, and Henry, not wanting to lose the alliance, betrothed Katharine, with the Pope's permission, to his second son Henry, afterwards Henry VIII. This led to serious consequences in the next reign. He also married his eldest daughter Margaret to James IV of Scotland, hoping in this way to keep peace with that country, which had always been a trouble to England since the days of Bruce.

Advance of Knowledge.—Thus Henry made the throne strong and wealthy, and the country was prosperous. Enterprise and learning were now advancing with great strides all over Europe. In 1492 Christopher Columbus had sailed across the Atlantic

and discovered the West Indies. In 1497 Vasco de Gama sailed round the Cape of Good Hope ; while Sebastian Cabot, a Venetian, sailed from Bristol up to the coast of Labrador, and opened the way to the cod fisheries of Newfoundland. Learning, too, was spreading fast since the discovery of printing, and men had begun to read and think more for themselves. The clergy were no longer the only educated men. In 1497, when Erasmus, the famous Dutch reformer, visited England, the universities of Oxford and Cambridge were full of life ; and Luther was studying in Germany when Henry VII died in 1509. He was buried in the beautiful chapel which bears his name at Westminster.

Henry VIII, 1509-1547.—Henry VIII was only eighteen when he came to the throne. He had a strong will and plenty of sense, and was very popular. His chief fault was a monstrous selfishness. He sacrificed without hesitation the women he married, and also his faithful ministers, whenever it suited his purpose. He was the founder of our modern Navy, for he established the first Navy office and the Trinity House, and started the dockyards of Deptford, Woolwich, and Portsmouth. But the most important event of his reign was the *Reformation*, which arose from two causes. *First*, because Henry quarrelled with the Pope and put an end to his power in England ; and *secondly*, because many men wished for a simpler and purer religion.

Wars with France and Scotland.—In the early part of his reign, however, he upheld the Pope and joined the Holy League formed by Spain and Germany to protect his dominions against France. In this war was fought the famous "*Battle of the Spurs*" (1513), so called because the French were seized with a panic. The war ended in 1514, and Henry's

youngest sister, Mary, married Louis XII of France. During the French war the Scots, who were their allies, attacked England, but were defeated in the *Battle of Flodden* (1513), when James IV of Scotland was killed. Twenty-seven years after, towards the end of Henry VIII's reign, James V of Scotland also attacked England, but was defeated at *Solway Moss* (1542), and died of grief. He left a baby daughter, Mary, the unfortunate Queen of the Scots.

Wolsey's Administration, 1515-1529.—The first great minister in Henry's reign was Wolsey, son of a citizen of Ipswich. He was in turn Archbishop of York, Chancellor, Cardinal, and *Papal Legate* or ambassador. This gave him great power, and he used it well in many ways, both in the government at home and in foreign politics. But he also strove hard to strengthen the power of the king, and to gain wealth and honour for himself.

At this time the King of Spain (who was also Emperor of Germany), and the King of France both wished for the support of England. Wolsey took presents from both, and played one off against the other. Through his advice Henry entertained the Emperor in England, and afterwards met Francis I. of France at Guisnes (1520), where the two kings and their courts were so magnificently dressed, that the meeting-place was called the *Field of the Cloth of Gold*. In the end Henry formed an alliance with France, and this displeased the English because it checked their wool trade with Flanders, which was at that time governed by Spain. They also began to dislike Wolsey because he levied heavy taxes as well as benevolences and forced loans.

Henry seeks a Divorce.—So long, however, as Wolsey pleased the king he was safe, but on one point he failed. Henry VIII was tired of his wife,

Katharine of Aragon, to whom he had been married eighteen years, and he wanted to marry Anne Boleyn, one of the maids of honour. So he began to say that Katharine was not really his wife, because she had been first betrothed to his brother who died, and he asked the Pope to let him divorce her. The Pope did not think this right, and, moreover, he did not wish to offend Charles V of Spain, who was Katharine's nephew ; so, though he sent a special legate to England to judge the case, the divorce was not granted. Henry was very angry both with the Pope and Wolsey. In 1529 he took away all Wolsey's offices and chose a new minister, *Thomas Cromwell*, to help him to gain his own way. The next year, 1530, Wolsey was arrested for high treason. He died at the Abbey of Leicester, on his way from York to London, uttering these memorable words: "Had I but served God as diligently as I have served the king, He would not have given me over in my gray hairs."

Cromwell's Administration.—Cromwell, who now stood first in the king's favour, advised him to divorce Katharine without the Pope's permission. By hunting up a law passed in Richard II's reign, punishing those who allowed the Pope to interfere with the law in England, he frightened the clergy into acknowledging the king as the *Supreme Head of the Church*, and the Act of Supremacy was passed in 1535. Meanwhile Parliament passed two Acts (1533-1534) which *entirely abolished the Pope's power in England*. In 1533 Henry divorced Katharine with the consent of Archbishop Cranmer and a council of bishops, and declared her child, Princess Mary, to be illegitimate. He had already married Anne Boleyn ; and her child, Princess Elizabeth, was born in Sept. 1533. All people were now required to swear that the first marriage

was illegal and the second legal. Two noble and upright men, Sir Thomas More, and Fisher bishop of Rochester, were executed because they refused to take this oath.

Suppression of the Monasteries.—Cromwell, who was a hard man, but an able statesman, now determined to make the clergy submit entirely to the king. By the new Acts the chapters of the cathedrals were forced to elect as bishops men chosen by the king, as they had before elected those chosen by the Pope. Moreover, as the monks still held firmly to the Pope's authority, Cromwell determined to put down the monasteries. He sent a report to Parliament showing that in some of the smaller monasteries the monks led idle and evil lives, and on this excuse all the smaller monasteries were broken up in 1536; the larger ones followed in 1539, and most of their wealth was taken by the king.

Risings of the People.—It may seem strange that people allowed their friends and teachers, the monks, to be robbed and dispersed so easily, but there were two reasons for this. *Firstly*, they were afraid of Cromwell, and *secondly*, the new doctrines taught by Luther, and largely held in Germany by the *Protestants*, or protestors against the old abuses, had unsettled men's minds; and the translations of the Bible, which they now read for themselves, made them wish for a reformed religion. Nevertheless the suppression of the monasteries did lead to riots, for the men who bought the monastery lands dealt more hardly with their tenants than the monks had done. They also found that it paid better to feed sheep than to grow corn and employ labourers, and many of the common lands, on which the cows and pigs of the cottagers used to graze, were enclosed and became private property. This led to great distress, and caused risings in the north and west of England. The

insurrection in the north was called the *Pilgrimage of Grace*, and the people asked the king to dismiss Cromwell and bring back the old religion. It was speedily put down, and many nobles executed.

Henry's Wives—Fall of Cromwell.—While all this was happening, Henry VIII had already had four wives. Anne Boleyn was beheaded in 1536 for being unfaithful, and the next day Henry married Jane Seymour, who died in 1537 on giving birth to a young prince, afterwards Edward VI. About two years later Cromwell chose a Protestant princess, Anne of Cleves, for Henry's fourth wife. Unfortunately she was plain, and Henry disliked her, and divorced her after six months. He was very angry with Cromwell for marrying him to her; and, in spite of all that this minister had done for him, he caused him to be arrested for treason. Cromwell had but few friends, and was condemned and executed without a trial July 28, 1540. That same day Henry married his fifth wife, Katharine Howard, who was not a good woman, and was beheaded in 1542. Lastly, he married Katharine Parr, who outlived him.

Religious Changes.—After Cromwell's death the Duke of Norfolk was chief minister. There were now two religious parties; one, encouraged by the Duke of Norfolk, wished to hold to the old ways; the other, led by Archbishop Cranmer, wished to follow the new religion. Henry held the balance between the two, yet he allowed the English Bible to be put in all the churches, and an English liturgy to be drawn up and used instead of the Latin service. When he died in 1547 the outward form of religion in England had been entirely changed.

Act of Succession.—Henry VIII was the first king of England who left a will deciding the succession to the throne. Edward was to reign first, then

Mary, and after her Elizabeth, and if none of these had children, then the crown was to pass to the children of his youngest sister, Mary. Thus he set aside Mary, Queen of Scots, grandchild of his eldest sister, Margaret.

CHAPTER VIII

RELIGIOUS PERSECUTIONS—PEACE AND PROGRESS

Edward VI, 1547—Mary, 1553—Elizabeth, 1558

Council of Regency.—The next two reigns, lasting only eleven years, were one long struggle between the two religions. Edward VI was only ten years old when he became king; he had been brought up by strict Protestants, and was very earnest and intelligent. Henry VIII, just before his death, quarrelled with the Duke of Norfolk, and put Edward's uncle, the Duke of Somerset, at the head of a *Council of Regency*. Somerset was an extreme Protestant, and not a wise ruler. He tried to force the Scots to betroth their young queen, Mary, to King Edward; but though he defeated them at *Pinkiecleugh*, near Edinburgh, in 1547, they sent Mary to France, where she was betrothed to the Dauphin, afterwards Francis II.

The English Prayer-book.—Somerset also failed to keep peace in the land. With the support of Archbishop Cranmer he forced on Protestant reforms. In 1548 an English prayer-book was brought into use, and an *Act of Uniformity* forbade the clergy using any other service-book in the churches. In country places, where the people loved the old religion, riots broke out; while in Norfolk another rising took place

against the enclosure of the Commons. Somerset was too weak to deal with these troubles, he resigned and was executed in 1552. Earl Warwick took his place, and put down the rebellions with German troops. But he, too, favoured the Protestants; a second prayer-book was introduced in 1552, and two bishops, Gardiner and Bonner, were imprisoned for holding the old faith. Two Protestant bishops, Latimer and Ridley, took their place.

Death of Edward VI, 1553.—Meanwhile the young king was dying of consumption, and Warwick, who was now Duke of Northumberland, was afraid that if Mary reigned she would bring back the old religion. So he persuaded Edward to sign a paper, putting aside his sisters, Mary and Elizabeth, and naming as his successor *Lady Jane Grey* (granddaughter of Henry VIII's sister, Mary), who had married Lord Guildford Dudley, Northumberland's son.

Catholicism restored by Queen Mary.—When Edward VI died in 1553, after a reign of six years, everything he had established was reversed. Lady Jane Grey was immediately proclaimed queen by Northumberland, but the people listened sullenly, and Henry's eldest daughter Mary soon marched to London. Northumberland was executed within a month (August 1553), and the next year (February 1554) poor Lady Jane Grey and her husband were also put to death. The Catholic bishops, Bonner and Gardiner, were released and restored to their sees, and the Protestant bishops, Latimer and Ridley, took their place in the Tower. When Parliament met, Mary was acknowledged as lawful queen, and all the laws of Edward's reign concerning religion were repealed. Mass was said again in the churches, and the English prayer-book forbidden. Bishop

Gardiner was made chancellor, and Simon Renard, the Spanish ambassador, became Mary's chief adviser.

Wyat's Rebellion, 1554.—Mary was in fact half a Spaniard, being the daughter of Katharine of Aragon, and she was quite old enough when her mother was divorced, to feel all the bitterness of the disgrace, and to hate the new religion which grew out of it. Her whole heart was bent on restoring Catholicism and the power of the Pope, and as a step towards this she agreed to marry her cousin, Philip II. of Spain. This marriage very much displeased the people and Parliament. They were afraid of a Spanish king who favoured the Inquisition, and they wanted Mary to marry Edward Courtenay, Earl of Devon, great grandson of Edward IV. A conspiracy was formed in the south and west of England to marry Princess Elizabeth, Henry's second daughter, to the Earl of Devon, and put her on the throne; and the men of Kent rose under an English knight, Sir Thomas Wyat. Mary, however, gained the men of London on her side, the rebellion was put down, Wyat was executed and many commoners hanged. It was this rebellion which caused Mary to put Lady Jane Grey to death.

Papal Legate restored—Protestant Persecutions.—Mary now married Philip II; and Cardinal Pole, the pope's legate, became Archbishop of Canterbury, and took the chief place in the council. But the wealth of the monasteries which had been the great support of the old religion was wanting, for the nobles refused to give up their church lands. All that Mary could do was to restore the royal lands and to try and suppress the new religion. The old statutes against heresy were restored, and many bishops and clergy were burnt at the stake. In October, Latimer and Ridley were chained back to

back at the same stake. "*Play the man, Master Ridley,*" said Latimer, "*we shall this day light such a candle in England as by the grace of God shall never be put out.*" And so they did. It was not a question which religion should prevail, but whether a man has a right to believe according to his own conscience. In three years, at least 280 honest, God-fearing people, including Archbishop Cranmer, perished for their belief; but though persecution dies hard, and there was much of it for many years after, yet people began to reflect how dangerous it is for any ruler to have power to sacrifice men's lives for honest religious opinions.

But though Mary worked hard for that which she thought her duty, she was not happy. Her husband neglected her, and she had no child to succeed her. Her health gave way, and the loss of *Calais*, which was retaken by the French in 1558, grieved her sorely. She died of a fever on Nov. 17, in that year, and the news was carried the same day to Princess Elizabeth (the daughter of Anne Boleyn), who had been kept under strict supervision during her sister's reign.

Queen Elizabeth 1558.—Elizabeth succeeded to a troubled inheritance. Mary had drained the treasury by ruinous war with France, and the terrible persecutions had driven the best men into exile: civil war was raging in Ireland, and Mary, Queen of Scots, who was married to the French dauphin, declared Elizabeth illegitimate, and claimed the English crown. In France Henry II was struggling to destroy his Protestant subjects, the Huguenots; while Philip II was burning heretics in Spain, and oppressing the Dutch in the Low Countries or Netherlands. All Europe was divided into two hostile camps, Catholic and Protestant, and Elizabeth had to steer England

clear of foreign interference, and to keep peace and prosperity at home. That she succeeded, in spite of all her faults and womanly weakness, was no doubt due to the principles she herself expressed at the end of her reign. "*I have used,*" she said, "*to set the last judgment day before mine eyes, and so to rule, as I shall have to answer before a higher Judge, to whose judgment-seat I do appeal, that never thought was cherished in my heart that tended not to my people's good.*"

Elizabeth and the Church.—She began by trying to free the Church entirely from foreign interference, and to establish a service in the churches to suit all worshippers as far as possible. No one in those days thought that there might be different creeds in different chapels. Religion and the State were one. On January 25, 1559, Parliament declared Elizabeth to be "*in all causes ecclesiastical as well as civil, supreme,*" and the clergy were required to take this oath of supremacy. Those bishops who refused were deprived of their sees, but Elizabeth was careful not to press the lower clergy too hard, and no one was punished for their private opinions. The outward forms of worship were, however, strictly laid down. A revised prayer-book was issued, with some changes to satisfy the Catholics, and all people were forced to go to church under heavy penalties, and were forbidden to hold any other services even in private houses. This pressed heavily on the old Catholics, and also on the extreme Protestants. But Archbishop Parker, who was appointed to Canterbury, carried out Elizabeth's views, and did not inquire too closely.

Reformation in Scotland.—In Scotland the Reformation went to much greater lengths. The regent, Mary of Guise, being a staunch Catholic, tried to put down the new religion. But the Calvinist

preacher, John Knox, had great influence with the nobles and people, and they destroyed the images in the churches, and broke out into open rebellion against the Regent, who brought over a French army to subdue them. The nobles asked Elizabeth to help them, and she sent some troops against the French. Just then, however, Mary of Guise died, and the Parliament of Scotland adopted the *Geneva Confession of Faith*. From that time Protestantism has remained the religion of Scotland.

Prosperity in England.—England now advanced rapidly. By claiming back the church lands which Mary had given up, and by exercising great economy, Elizabeth refilled the treasury. She did even more by removing the terror of persecution. Farming, manufactures, and trade all began to revive. Many Flemings, driven out by the troubles in the Netherlands, settled in England and improved the arts of weaving and dyeing. In the north and midlands Manchester, Halifax, and Sheffield grew into important manufacturing towns, while English adventurers began to make voyages of discovery by sea. Sir Walter Raleigh and Hawkins sailed to America and Africa, and Drake sailed round the world, thus leading the way to new countries and fresh commerce. People at home also lived more comfortably. Instead of inhabiting fortified castles they built open Elizabethan villas; and even yeomen and farmers had stone and brick houses with chimneys and glass windows, instead of mere holes in the walls. Also in place of the doles, which the poor used to receive from the monasteries, an Act of Parliament in 1561 required each town and village to raise a fund for their own poor. This was the *first Poor-law*.

Mary, Queen of Scots.—But while the people were at peace Elizabeth had endless anxieties, and among

these the greatest was Mary, Queen of Scots. Her husband, Francis II, had died, and Mary had returned to reign in Scotland, and married her cousin, Lord Darnley, grandson of Margaret, Henry VIII's sister. They had not been married a year when Darnley, in a fit of jealousy, caused Rizzio, Mary's Italian secretary, to be murdered (1566). Mary never forgave him. A son was born to them soon after, and when he was only nine months old, a lonely house in which Lord Darnley was lying ill was blown up with gunpowder, and he was killed (Feb. 9, 1567). There was little doubt that a worthless young noble, the Earl of Bothwell, did the deed, yet Mary married him three months afterwards (May 15, 1567).

The whole nation felt outraged. The Scottish nobles took Mary prisoner, shut her up in Lochleven Castle, and crowned her baby son as James VI of Scotland. A year later Mary escaped and fled to England in May 1568.

Parliament and the English Succession. — Nothing could have been more embarrassing for Elizabeth; for as Mary was a Catholic, and claimed the English crown, there were many Catholics who would have liked to put her in Elizabeth's place. Moreover, Parliament had often urged the queen to marry, so that there might be an heir to the throne. But she would not, and she was probably wise, for whether she chose a Protestant or a Catholic she must have offended half her subjects. So, though she coquetted at different times with the Archduke of Austria, the Earl of Leicester, and the Duke of Anjou, she would marry none of them. And now to have Mary, who had a son, actually in England was very dangerous. Elizabeth dared not let her go to France, where the king would have encouraged her

intrigues, and the Scottish nobles would not have her back as queen. So Elizabeth kept her in various English country-houses,—really a prisoner.

Struggles against Catholic Plots.—Some time before this, in 1563, Pope Pius IV, who was very wroth with Elizabeth for not recognising his authority, had forbidden the Catholics to go to the English churches. Parliament, jealous at this interference, passed an Act obliging all members of the Commons, and every public servant, to take an oath of allegiance to the queen, and deny the Pope's authority in England. This of course shut out all strict Catholics from office, and caused much ill-feeling; and when, in 1570, the Pope excommunicated Elizabeth, and the Duke of Norfolk began to plot with Philip of Spain to send troops to England to put Mary, Queen of Scots, on the throne (1571), many Catholics were ready to join in the revolt. Fortunately Lord Burleigh discovered the plot. Norfolk was executed, and Mary kept a closer prisoner than before.

Still the plots went on. In 1576 a number of young English Catholics, who had been trained at Douai in France by the Jesuits, spread over England trying to revive the old religion, and preaching submission to the Pope, while the Spanish intrigues never ceased. At last, after two more conspiracies had been discovered against Elizabeth's life, Parliament condemned Mary to death for having plotted with the enemies of the queen and, after a long struggle with herself, Elizabeth signed the death-warrant. On Feb. 8, 1587, Mary, Queen of Scots, was beheaded.

The Spanish Armada, 1588.—Elizabeth had now only one dangerous enemy left. This was Philip II of Spain, who was making serious preparations to attack England. Thirty thousand Spanish troops were gathered together under the *Duke of Parma*

in the Netherlands, ready to cross to the attack ; and a monster fleet of 129 ships sailed from Spain, under the command of the *Duke of Medina Sidonia*, on July 12, 1588. Philip thought that all the English Catholics would rise and join in the attack, and that the Spanish Armada would crush Protestantism in England. He was mistaken. Elizabeth had gained the confidence of her subjects, and, valuing the freedom of England above all questions of creed, Catholic and Protestant alike rose to defend their country.

The little English fleet of only eighty small vessels and 9000 men, which sailed under Lord Howard, had daring spirits in it to lead the fight. *Frobisher*, *Hawkins*, and *Drake* were there, and they ran their little ships in among the heavy Spanish vessels, and threw them into confusion. Soon afterwards a heavy storm dispersed the Spanish fleet ; and the duke, unable to turn back because of the English fleet in his rear, was forced to sail up the east coast of England, and find his way home round Scotland. Near the Orkneys he met the fury of the storm ; the ships were driven on the rocks, and more than 11,000 dead Spaniards were washed ashore in Scotland and Ireland. After this, though the war went on for some years till 1598, it was carried on chiefly by volunteers, and to the advantage of England.

Close of Elizabeth's Reign.—Now at last Elizabeth was comparatively at rest, and the fruits of her good government began to show themselves. England had proved herself mistress of the seas, and English ships sailed far and wide. Sir Walter Raleigh brought potatoes and tobacco from Virginia. Sir Francis Drake opened the way to the East Indies, and in 1599 Elizabeth granted a charter to a London *East India Company*, giving them a right to trade with the East Indies. All this intercourse with new

nations, and the discovery of new lands, together with the increase of wealth and comfort at home, widened men's minds, and made them wish for more knowledge, while the spread of printing led to more general reading. So we find many new writers in Elizabeth's reign, historians, philosophers, playwrights, and poets; and among them such great men as Lord Bacon, Spenser, and Shakespeare. Parliament, too, had regained much of the independence lost under Henry VIII, for, as the country prospered, the new nobility grew strong in the Lords, and wealthy country gentlemen sat in the Commons without requiring pay. So, when Elizabeth came for grants, they spoke their minds boldly as to evils waiting for redress, and even when she was vexed with them she saw the wisdom of yielding.

Conquest of Ireland.—The one blot on the picture was Ireland. Ever since the reign of Henry II there had been trouble, not only between the English settlers and the native Irish, but among the Anglo-Irish lords themselves. These lords being in a wild country had grown lawless and rebellious, and England had been so busy with her own struggles that she only remembered Ireland when she was troublesome and had to be put down.

Henry VIII and Elizabeth had indeed tried to win over these Irish lords to order and loyalty; but unfortunately the Irish, being fervent Catholics, rebelled against the new religious laws, and Spain was always urging them on to rebellion. The country had been in open revolt early in Elizabeth's reign, and now again, in 1595, Philip II incited a brave Irish chief, Hugh O'Neill, Earl of Tyrone, to rebel. The queen sent a favourite young nobleman, the Earl of Essex, to put down the rebellion, but he made a foolish weak peace with Tyrone.

and being blamed, broke into rebellion himself. He was found guilty of treason and beheaded (February 1601), greatly to Elizabeth's sorrow. Then Lord Mountjoy was sent and conquered Tyrone, and from that date, March 24, 1602, the whole of Ireland has been governed by England.

Death of Elizabeth.—And now Elizabeth lay dying, without an heir to her throne. She had outlived many of her councillors, and a strange melancholy came over her. As her life was fading away it was only by a slight motion of the head that she agreed that James VI of Scotland, son of Mary, Queen of Scots, should be King of England. In the early morning of March 24, 1603, the great Queen died.

CHAPTER IX

STRUGGLE BETWEEN THE STUART KINGS AND THE COMMONS

James I, 1603—Charles I, 1625—The Commonwealth, 1649

James VI of Scotland was already thirty-six years of age when he was crowned as *James I. of England*. He was a shrewd man, but obstinate and conceited. He thought that he ruled by "divine right," and wished to have absolute authority and to override Parliament. Unfortunately the *Star Chamber*, established by Henry VII, and the *Court of High Commission*, founded by Elizabeth to govern the Church, gave the sovereign great power, and James, by attempting to act independently of Parliament, prepared the way for the unhappy reign of his son, Charles I.

James and the Puritans.—There were now three religious parties in England :—1. The English High Church party. 2. The Catholics. 3. The Puritans. These last held much the same opinion as the Presbyterians in Scotland, and they hoped that a Scotch king would allow them to conduct the services in the way they wished. James invited four leading Puritans to meet the bishops at *Hampton Court* (January 1604) to discuss the matter, but he was so angry with the Puritans, because he could not convince them by his arguments, that he refused to make any changes. Ten of those who had petitioned were imprisoned by order of the Star Chamber, and 300 clergy turned out of their livings. This *Hampton Court Conference* had two results : *First*, a new translation of the Bible was made ; and *secondly*, a small number of Puritans escaped to Holland. Twelve years later this little colony of 120 souls, called the *Pilgrim Fathers*, sailed in a ship called the *Mayflower* to America, and settled in Massachusetts. These men prepared the way for the States of New England.

James and the Commons.—When James summoned a Parliament, the Commons asked him to reinstate the Puritan clergy, and because he would not they revenged themselves by passing harsh laws against the Catholics. The consequence was that a small body of Catholics, led by an enthusiast named Catesby, resolved to blow up both king and Parliament on the opening day, the 5th of Nov. 1605. This was the famous *Gunpowder Plot*, which was only discovered just in time. Guy Fawkes was found in a vault under the Houses of Parliament on Nov. 4, with barrels of gunpowder stacked ready for explosion the next day. The conspirators were put to death, and the Catholics were worse off than before.

The king was at this time very hard pressed for money. The Irish had been more than usually unquiet, because a large part of Ulster and Leinster had been taken from them and given to English and Scotch settlers; and for this and other reasons funds were much needed. James collected them, without the consent of Parliament, by levying duties on goods, called *impositions*, and this made the Commons very angry. They refused to give the king £200,000 a year for life; and they also refused to allow him to unite Scotland and England into one country under the name of *Great Britain*, because they were jealous of his Scotch subjects. At last, in 1611, James dissolved Parliament without getting any money. He called another in 1614, but they refused any grant unless the *impositions* were abolished, and as James remained obstinate, that Parliament also was dissolved without passing a single law. Hence it was called the *Addled Parliament*.

Seven Years without Parliament.—After this for seven years James would not call another Parliament. He obtained money by fines, benevolences, loans, and other illegal means. He sold peerages, and created and sold freely the order of *baronet*; and he granted *monopolies*, or the exclusive right of selling certain goods, such as wine, for example, to his friends and to those who gave him money. His chief minister and favourite was George Villiers, Duke of Buckingham, who became the richest man in England; and bribery and corruption went on without check among the ministers, and even in the courts of law.

Another sore point between James and his subjects was his friendship with Philip III of Spain, in spite of all that England had suffered from Spain in Elizabeth's reign. To please the Spanish king he put

brave Sir Walter Raleigh to death for fighting the Spaniards in America, and he sent his only surviving son, Prince Charles, to Spain, hoping to marry him to Philip's daughter.

The Third Parliament.—At last James was forced to summon another Parliament ; for the *Thirty Years' War* had broken out on the continent between the Catholic and Protestant princes, and James wished to help his Protestant son-in-law, Ferdinand, Elector Palatine of Germany. The Commons granted him a small sum of money for this object, hoping he would fight against Spain, and then set to work to stop the abuses of the last seven years. They abolished the monopolies, reformed the law courts, and even *impeached* Lord Chancellor Bacon before the House of Lords (1621) for taking bribes. He confessed he had done so, and was deprived of his offices, but the king pardoned him and he retired into private life. Soon after this the Commons and the king quarrelled again, because they wanted him to marry Prince Charles to a Protestant, and he still wanted the Spanish marriage. James was highly offended that they should dictate to him. He dissolved Parliament (1622) and sent several members to prison. The Spanish marriage was, however, broken off, because the Infanta did not like the prince, and Charles and Buckingham returned to England eager to fight Spain.

The Fourth and Last Parliament.—Thus James was forced to call another Parliament, which gave him just enough money to carry on the war, and then adjourned for the winter. Meanwhile James betrothed Charles to Henrietta of France, and as she, too, was a Catholic, he was afraid to call Parliament together again. With what little money he had he sent troops to help the Elector Palatine, but the

expedition failed, and the king died of ague, caused partly by chagrin, March 27, 1625. His reign had been one perpetual struggle between the will of the Commons and the will of the king, and this struggle was to be fought to its bitter end in the next reign.

Charles I., 1625.—Charles I. was a dignified, reserved man, gracious in manner, a scholar, and a good husband and father, and many people hoped he would work better with the Commons than his quick-tempered father had done. But he had the same fixed idea of his *divine right*, and was besides obstinate and insincere; while the Commons were very determined to have their rights. They began by voting the tax on liquor, called *tonnage* and *poundage*, for one year only, instead of granting it for life, and they urged Charles to dismiss Buckingham. This he would not do, and dissolved Parliament. Then he tried to carry on the war with Spain without funds, but an expedition under Sir E. Cecil to attack Spanish ships failed miserably, leaving a serious debt. He was forced to summon another Parliament, and the Houses had no sooner assembled than Sir John Eliot, Vice-Admiral of the Fleet, rose and accused Buckingham of causing all the disasters. But Charles intended to rule with a high hand; he sent Eliot and his supporter, Digges, to the Tower, and dissolved Parliament before any money had been voted.

Forced Loans.—Then, as he could not make war without funds, and wanted to defend the Huguenots of La Rochelle against the King of France, Charles fell upon the plan of compelling people to *lend* him money. Gentlemen who refused were imprisoned, and poor men were pressed as soldiers, or had soldiers billeted upon them. He got sufficient to send Buckingham with a fleet to La Rochelle, but again the expedition failed. A great sadness fell on the

English people. The Tudors had been despotic, but they had kept the land at peace, and the taxes light. Charles, on the contrary, impoverished and disgraced the country by unsuccessful wars, and put innocent men in prison.

Third Parliament—Petition of Right.—At last the king summoned a third Parliament, and the Commons at once drew up a *Petition of Right*, insisting that loans should not be raised without consent of Parliament, nor free men imprisoned without just cause, nor soldiers billeted in private houses. Charles was forced to sign this petition in order to get his money grants, and as soon as he had them he prorogued Parliament for some months (June 1628). Two months later Buckingham was murdered by a fanatic named Felton, and people hoped the country would be at peace. But Charles could not keep faith. He made Weston, Buckingham's secretary, his high treasurer, and went on levying tonnage and poundage illegally, and seizing the goods of men who refused to pay. When Parliament met again in 1629 a violent quarrel took place. Some custom-house officers who had seized the goods of a member of Parliament were summoned before the Commons to be punished. The king in great anger ordered the House to adjourn, but the members locked the doors, and a vote was carried declaring *all men traitors who made changes in religion, or paid or took custom duties without consent of Parliament*. Then the king's guards broke open the door, and next day Parliament was dissolved. The king sent several members to the Tower, where Sir John Eliot remained a prisoner till his death in 1632.

Wentworth and Laud.—For the next eleven years Charles ruled without a Parliament. His chief ministers were Wentworth, afterwards Lord Strafford,

and Laud, who became Archbishop of Canterbury in 1635. These two men, though faithful throughout to the king, ruined him by their despotic rule, and then died martyrs to his cause. Wentworth's great idea, both as President to the Council of the north, and afterwards as Lord Deputy of Ireland, was to uphold the king's prerogative and to get money for the treasury. His rule in many ways was not bad. In Ireland he encouraged trade, and established the linen manufactures. But he, like his master, had no respect for promises or law. 'To be "*thorough*," and make all bend to his will, was his aim, and his reign in Ireland was one of terror.

Ritual and Ship-money.—Meanwhile Charles and Laud were causing great discontent in England. Laud, who was a High Churchman, tried to put back crucifixes in the churches and introduce many ceremonies of the old religion. But most of all he provoked the Puritans by trying to restore the village games and dancing on Sundays. He deprived hundreds of clergy of their livings because they would not give out this order from the pulpit, and three men even had their ears cut off for writing pamphlets against Laud's government. Charles also went on levying funds illegally, commanding all coast towns to give him "*ship-money*," such as had been raised on an emergency when the Armada threatened England. When he tried to do this also in inland towns, a Buckinghamshire squire named Hampden refused to pay, and appealed to the law. But a majority of the judges decided for the king, and the tax was continued.

Outbreak in Scotland.—Just at this time, when all England was uneasy, Laud tried to force the Scots to use the English prayer-book in their churches, and this raised such tumults in the land that Charles

marched with an army to the Border. He found that the Scotch Covenanters were prepared to fight, while the English soldiers sympathised with them, and he was forced to return to London. But obstinate as ever, he sent for Earl Strafford (Wentworth) from Ireland, and they agreed to raise troops in Yorkshire, and bring over Irish troops to overcome the Scots. At the same time he summoned another Parliament in hopes of gaining funds, but the Commons began at once to complain of grievances and illegal taxation, and Parliament was soon dissolved. The country was now in a complete uproar, while the Scots army had crossed the border and taken possession of the northern countries. The people were determined to have another and an efficient Parliament to secure law and order. On Nov. 3, 1640, Charles summoned his Commons for the fifth time, and this Parliament, known in history as the *Long Parliament*, lasted for thirteen years, and outlived the king.

. **Fall of Strafford and Laud.**—The first act of the Commons was to impeach Laud and Strafford. They hated Strafford most on account of his hard rule, and for having planned to bring over an Irish army. Strafford would have returned from York to Ireland and so have escaped, but when the king promised to protect him he came to London. The impeachment was altered into a *Bill of Attainder*, declaring him a traitor, and he was condemned to death. Charles was too cowardly to protect his minister as he had promised, and Strafford was executed on May 12, 1641. Laud was kept a prisoner in the Tower and beheaded in 1645.

The great Remonstrance. — After Strafford's death the Commons abolished the Courts of the Northern Council, the Star Chamber, and the Court

of High Commission, and declared ship-money to be illegal. Then, being roused to desperation by a fearful massacre of Scots and English in Ireland, by Irishmen who showed that the king had authorised them to take up arms, they drew up a *grand Remonstrance*, stating all the evils they had suffered for years past, and demanding to appoint their own ministers. In vain the king tried to overawe them. When he sent to seize five members of the Commons they took refuge in the city where he could not touch them, and were brought back next week in triumph. The king saw that his power was gone. He sent his wife and children to the Netherlands, and left London to raise troops to fight for his throne.

Civil War, 1642-1647.—For the next four years civil war raged in England. Those who followed the king were called *Cavaliers*; their party was strongest in the north and west. Those who fought for the Parliament were nicknamed *Roundheads*; they were most numerous in the east and south. It must be remembered that there was no regular army in those days, only a militia composed of citizens. This gave the king the advantage, for his followers were chiefly nobles and gentlemen's sons well trained in all manly exercises and the use of weapons, while the Parliamentary troops were largely composed of shopkeepers, farmers, and country-folk. During the first year the cavaliers won almost every battle (see Map, p. 81). But in 1644 a change came. *Oliver Cromwell*, a Huntingdonshire gentleman, began very early in the war to gather round him earnest zealous men, whom he trained to fight for the cause, under the title of *Cromwell's Ironsides*. This body of men turned the tide of battle at *Marston Moor* in 1644, and the Cavaliers were beaten. After this Cromwell

was made Lieutenant-general under General Fairfax. He remodelled the whole army, and at *Naseby*, on



Walker & Bontall sc.

June 14, 1645, gained a decisive victory, and shattered the royalist army. The king fled to Wales and

soon after joined the Scotch army at Newark and tried to make terms with the Parliament. But he was so intriguing that the Scots grew tired of him, and, in 1647, handed him over to Parliament.

Second Civil War, 1648-1649.—The king was now really a prisoner, though treated with some semblance of royalty. He was placed first at Holmby House in Northamptonshire, but the soldiers, jealous of the influence of Parliament, carried him off to Hampton Court. From there he escaped to the Isle of Wight ; where, however, he was again captured, and confined in Carisbrooke Castle. All this time he was intriguing with one party or another to gain his liberty, and at last succeeded in rousing the Scots and the English royalists to rise in his favour. A second civil war broke out in 1648, which was really the cause of his ruin. In Kent, Essex, and Wales the royalists were again defeated, and Cromwell gained a complete victory over the Scots at *Preston*, in Lancashire, August 17, 1648.

The soldiers, weary of the continual strife, came back determined to get rid of the king. One Colonel Pride went with a regiment to the House of Commons and turned back all the members who would not promise to bring Charles to trial. The remaining fifty-three members appointed a commission, which impeached the king Jan. 20, 1649. The trial was really a mockery, and the king refused to defend himself. He was condemned, and executed on a scaffold outside Whitehall Palace Jan. 30, 1649.

The Commonwealth.—The king being dead, the only government left was a Parliament of about eighty men. They abolished the House of Lords, proclaimed a *Commonwealth*, or Republic, on May 19,

1649, and elected a *Council of State* of forty members and military men, to carry on the government. The chief leaders were Cromwell, Ireton his son-in-law, General Fairfax, Sir Henry Vane, and Bradshaw who had been president at the king's trial. They had a difficult task before them, for all Europe looked coldly upon them, and the country was ruined with the heavy war taxes, and overrun with disbanded royalist soldiers. Moreover, many people were seriously displeased at the murder of the king.

War in Ireland.—The Scots at once proclaimed his son Charles II as their sovereign, and the Irish, under the Duke of Ormond, invited the young prince to come over from the Netherlands to fight for his kingdom. But before he could arrive Cromwell had crossed the Irish Channel with 12,000 men, and completely subdued the Irish at the *siege of Drogheda*, Sept. 11, 1649, and at *Wexford* the following month, Oct. 11. Both these battles were followed by fearful massacres, which will always remain a stain on Cromwell's memory.

Charles II in Scotland.—The next year, June 24, 1650, news arrived that young Charles had landed in Scotland, and had sworn to uphold the Presbyterian religion if the Scots would fight for him. Cromwell therefore returned in haste from Ireland and marched north with 16,000 men, where, after many difficulties from scarcity of provisions, he completely defeated the Scots at *Dunbar* Sept. 3, 1650, and took possession of Edinburgh. Nevertheless, Charles II was crowned King of Scotland at Scone Jan. 1, 1651, and the war went on for many months till Charles, weary of the serious life in Scotland, marched into England, where his army was completely overthrown by Cromwell at the *battle of Worcester* Sept. 3, 1651. Charles fled in disguise, and took

refuge in an oak-tree in Boscobel Wood, where he listened to the Roundheads searching for him below. Two brothers named Penderel hid him in their house, and after many romantic adventures he escaped to Normandy.

War with the Dutch, 1651-1653.—Meanwhile the Council of State, with the poet *Milton* for their secretary, ruled England with the help of the remnant of the Long Parliament. In foreign matters they did well, and *Admiral Blake*, who commanded the navy under Sir Harry Vane, won some famous victories over the Dutch Fleet led by Admiral Van Tromp. The war arose because the English Parliament passed a *Navigation Act* forbidding any but English vessels to bring goods to England. It lasted for two years; at the end of which Van Tromp was killed and England remained mistress of the seas, thus regaining her position among foreign nations; and after the battle of Worcester the Commonwealth was acknowledged even by foreign kings.

Cromwell and the Long Parliament.—But at home troubles were brewing. The wars had been expensive, and Parliament began to levy taxes almost as tyrannically as the king had done. Moreover, having no one to check them, members gave offices to their friends, and took bribes from private people. When Cromwell saw what was going on he told the Parliament that they ought to dissolve and allow the people to elect a Parliament of their own choice. They refused, and then he took the law in his own hands, and entering the House with a regiment of musketeers, bade them turn out the members. "What shall we do with this bauble?" said he, taking up the speaker's mace, "take it away." Thus he turned out the Long Parliament which had

sat from 1640 to 1653, but as it was not legally dissolved we shall hear of it again.

Rule of Cromwell.—The country was now governed by Cromwell, with the army to support him. He summoned another Parliament at once, elected by the people, but under the guidance of himself and his officers. This *Godly Parliament*, as it was called, wanted to make so many changes that everything fell into confusion, and after sitting five months they gave up their power to Cromwell, who was then made *Lord Protector*, and put at the head of the State. He ruled well and justly, made a fair peace with the Dutch, and favourable treaties with Denmark, Sweden, and Portugal; he encouraged education and learning, and was just to all religious sects, except that he forbade the use of the Book of Common Prayer. He cut down the costs of the law courts, and removed heavy burdens from the farmers and yeomen.

Cromwell's Parliaments.—Yet after a time he, too, began to govern despotically. His first Parliament, elected Sept. 3, 1654, having opposed him in many ways, he dissolved it after five months, and divided England into ten districts, governed by Major-Generals. The next Parliament was more pliant, and even offered to make him king, yet they, too, were offended when he made a new House of Lords; so he dissolved that Parliament also, and for the rest of his life governed alone.

Though he was a fair and just ruler, the people were restless. They did not like the strict Puritan control which forbade all amusements and innocent fun, and made life solemn and dreary. The republicans were discontented because the republic was crushed, the royalists because a usurper was in the place of a king. Moreover, Cromwell was a hard

stern man, and even his friends feared him, and were jealous of him, so that he did not form any strong or lasting party around him. Therefore when he died, Sept. 3, 1658, though his son Richard was named to succeed him, every one felt his rule would not last. In fact Richard did not care to govern. A Parliament was elected, which quarrelled with the army, so Richard dissolved it after three months, and the officers recalled the remains of the old Long Parliament, now coarsely called the *Rump*, or hinder end of a Parliament. The Rump called upon Richard to resign, and he did so gladly, and retired into private life.

Return of Charles as King.—Now was the time for the royalists. While the Rump and the Army were struggling for power in London, a Parliamentary general named Monk, who had once served under Charles I. and afterwards under Cromwell, and who was then in Scotland with another part of the army, marched to London, proclaiming that he was coming to establish a free Parliament. Soon after he arrived the Rump was at last dissolved, and a new Parliament, called the *Convention Parliament*, was elected. There were a great many royalists in it, and they agreed to invite Charles II to come and govern them. Charles had already been in correspondence with Monk. He landed at Dover May 25, 1660, and entered London amid great rejoicing on May 29, which has ever since been called *Royal Oak Day*. A few months later the army was disbanded, and the soldiers returned to their desks, or shops, or farms. All men were glad to be at peace again.

CHAPTER X

THE RESTORATION AND THE REVOLUTION

Charles II, 1660-1685—James II, 1685-1689

Royalist England.—Charles II was crowned at Westminster Abbey on April 23, the year after his restoration. With his return everything was again changed. In the country the people went back to their feasts and dances on the green, though the Puritan soldiers introduced an earnest religious tone into their homes. London became once more gay and fashionable, and the Court was a scene of revelry, and, unfortunately, also of frivolity and immorality. Charles II was clever, amiable, and easy-tempered. He took a great interest in science, and founded *Greenwich Observatory*, besides giving a charter in 1662 to the *Royal Society of London*, to which Newton communicated his theory of gravitation. But Charles was also dissolute and selfish, and, in order to have his own way and enjoy himself, he cheated his own people and received bribes from France. He was determined “never to go on his travels again;” and the people, tired of civil war, wanted peace at any price, so with his easy temper he kept his throne in spite of being a despicable king.

Act of Indemnity.—The Convention Parliament, after executing thirteen of the men who condemned Charles I. and putting others in prison, passed an *Act of Indemnity*, pardoning all who had fought in the Civil War. Then they granted the king an income of £1,200,000 for life, and having disbanded the army, dissolved to make way for another

Parliament. Charles, however, kept 5000 soldiers for his own protection, and paid them himself. This was the first beginning of a *standing army*.

Laws against the Puritans.—The next Parliament was called the *Cavalier Parliament*, because it contained so many old royalists. These men naturally hated the Puritans, and though Charles had promised his subjects liberty of conscience he could not prevent the Parliament passing a *Corporation Act* (1661), forcing all officials to take the sacrament in the English Church, and an *Act of Uniformity* (1662), forbidding any man to hold a living unless he had been ordained by a bishop, and used the English prayer-book. All others were turned out of their livings on St. Bartholomew's Day, 1662, and these men took for the first time the name of *Dissenters*, because they *dissented* from the church service. At first they formed congregations of their own; but even this was not allowed. In 1664 a *Conventicle Act* was passed which forbade all people to worship in chapels; and in 1665 a *Five-mile Act* prevented dissenting ministers from going within five miles of any town. In consequence of these harsh laws, many Puritans emigrated to America, where Charles granted them tracts of land. *Penn*, the famous quaker, obtained a large territory, where a body of Friends founded the State of *Pennsylvania*. At home many Puritans persisted in preaching in spite of the law. It was for preaching in conventicles that *Bunyan*, the tinker, was imprisoned for twelve years in Bedford Gaol, where he wrote the *Pilgrim's Progress*. It was during this time also that Milton wrote his *Paradise Lost* and *Paradise Regained*, which are full of Puritan teaching.

Charles and Parliament.—Charles was not very long before he got into trouble with his Parliament

because of his great extravagance. In 1665 another naval war broke out with the Dutch, in which James, Duke of York, as admiral of the English fleet, gained a great victory off *Lowestoft*; while in another famous battle fought off the North Foreland, and called the *Battle of the Downs* (1666), neither party had the advantage. This war was very expensive, and though Parliament voted £1,250,000 for it, they did it grudgingly, for they felt sure that Charles spent public money on his own pleasures and vices, and they were angry that he had sold to France the city of Dunkerque, which Cromwell had taken from Spain.

Plague and Fire of London.—Just at this time a plague broke out in London, so much worse than any before it, that it is known as *The Plague of London*. More than 100,000 persons died of it in 1665, and the king and courtiers, doctors and clergy, fled in a panic. Only devoted earnest men, chiefly the Puritan preachers, with General Monk, and Laurence, Lord Mayor of London, stayed to comfort the dying, and to prevent robbery and anarchy in the plague-stricken city. The plague passed away in the winter, but it was followed the next year by the fearful *Fire of London*, which started in a baker's overheated oven in Pudding Lane, near London Bridge, and raged for three days. The crowded wooden houses burnt like tinder, and 13,200 dwellings and 89 churches, including St. Paul's, were destroyed. The king and the Duke of York stopped the fire at last, by ordering whole batches of houses to be blown up, thus making gaps across which the flames could not spread.

Clarendon Impeached.—In the midst of these disasters Clarendon applied for more money for the war, but the Commons refused, and asked to see the

accounts. Charles dared not let them know how he had squandered the money, and hastened to make peace with Holland. But before anything was settled he dismissed the sailors to save paying them, and the Dutch admiral sailed up the unprotected river and burnt three English men-of-war at Chatham. The people were so enraged that the Commons impeached *Clarendon*, who fled to France, where he remained till his death.

Treachery and Dishonesty of Charles.—After Clarendon's disgrace Charles went his own way and tried to outwit Parliament. His five chief advisers, Clifford, Arlington, Buckingham, Ashley, and Lauderdale, formed what was called the *Cabal* ministry, which word meant the king's private council, and happened to be spelt by their initials. They were so hated, that *cabal* has been a term of reproach ever since, but it was really Charles who was to blame. A *triple alliance* had been formed in 1668 between Holland, Sweden, and England to prevent France from invading the Netherlands; but Charles signed a secret and disgraceful treaty at Dover with King Louis XIV, promising to declare himself a Catholic, and help the French against the Dutch, if Louis would give him 300,000 a year and send French troops to England to protect him if necessary. From treachery he went on to dishonesty, and in 1672 closed the Royal Exchequer, which repaid the interest and principal of all moneys lent by the nation to the king. Thus the people lost their money, and did not get it back till William III's reign. Just at this time the Duke of York openly declared himself a Roman Catholic, and as Charles had no children, and the Duke was the heir to the throne, this caused great alarm. Moreover, the king published a *Declaration of Indulgence* for Roman Catholics and Dissenters, so

as to leave the duke free to follow his religion ; and to crown all he broke off the treaty with Holland and Sweden, and joined Louis in a war against the Dutch.

Charles' Treachery Discovered.—Most kings would have paid dearly for such deeds, but Charles managed to appease the people. When Parliament met they made him give up the Declaration of Indulgence, and passed a *Test Act*, which excluded all Roman Catholics, except the duke, from office. The Cabal ministry was broken up, and the Earl of Danby, who became minister, made peace with Holland, and arranged the marriage of the Duke of York's eldest daughter, Mary, with the Protestant Stadtholder, William of Orange. This pleased the people, but there was still a very uneasy feeling, and when a low preacher named *Titus Oates* spread an untrue story of a Popish plot to destroy the king and constitution, the Commons believed him, and many innocent men were put to death. All this time Charles had been secretly taking money from Louis, but now that he had made peace with Holland the French king refused to pay him more, and allowed some letters to fall into the hands of the Commons, which revealed the truth. They were thunder-struck when they learnt that the King of England had received a pension from France. Danby was at once impeached, and Charles, to save further disclosures, dissolved Parliament.

The Exclusion Bill.—But the nation was thoroughly alarmed, and the next Parliament (1679) sent Danby to the Tower, and brought in a bill to exclude the Duke of York from the throne because he was a Catholic. They also passed the *Habeas Corpus Act*, which restated the ancient law of the Magna Charta, that a man cannot be *kept* in prison without being brought to trial. The struggle over the *Exclusion Bill* lasted

through two Parliaments, and gave rise to two violent parties, the *Whigs*, who upheld the bill, and were nicknamed from some bands of Scotch rebels called Whiggamores, and the *Tories*, who were against the bill, and wished James to reign, and who were nicknamed after some Roman Catholic outlaws in Ireland. Matters grew so serious that in the last Parliament, which met at Oxford in 1681, the members all came armed. Charles, fearing another civil war, proposed that Princess Mary of Orange, James' daughter, should be named Regent after his death, and govern the country, though James should be called king. But before this could be settled he suddenly dissolved Parliament, and never had another.

Rye House Plot, 1683.—The Whigs were much disappointed that James had not been entirely shut out from reigning, and still hoped to influence the king. Unfortunately, however, a few bold and desperate men formed a plot to murder Charles and James at Rye House, a lonely spot in Hertfordshire. The plot was discovered, and though the Whig leaders had known nothing of it, they suffered in consequence. Lord Russell, one of the noblest men of the age and much beloved, was executed, and with him Algernon Sidney, second son of the Earl of Leicester. The Tories now had all their own way. Charles again received a bribe from Louis not to support William of Orange, and when he died, Feb. 6, 1685, he received the rites of the Romish Church. Though a *merry monarch*, and a favourite with his subjects, his reign was one of the most despicable in English history.

Character of James II.—When Charles died James came to the throne without opposition, having first promised to “uphold Church and State as by law established.” People knew he was a Catholic,

and if he had been content to follow his own religion quietly, all might have been well. But though a well-meaning man, James was bigoted and arbitrary, and in four years he managed to set the whole nation against him. He began by having mass performed in public, and he forbade the clergy to speak against the Roman Catholics in their sermons. He also took possession of the customs duties before Parliament met to grant them, and set free on his own responsibility all Catholics and Dissenters who had been imprisoned for not complying with the Test Act. In spite of this, however, so many Tories were elected in the next Parliament that they granted the king an income of £2,000,000 for life.

Monmouth's Rebellion, 1685.—The Whigs were very discontented, and many of them, who had fled to Holland after the Rye House Plot, persuaded the Duke of Monmouth, a natural son of Charles II, to cross over to England and claim the throne as a Protestant ruler. The rebellion broke out both in Scotland and the West of England. In Scotland the Duke of Argyll led the Covenanters, while Monmouth landed at Lyme, in Dorset, and was warmly welcomed June 11, 1685. Both rebellions were quickly put down. Argyll's force was scattered, and he was executed June 30, 1685; and Monmouth, after being proclaimed king at Taunton, was totally defeated at *Sedgemoor*, near Bridgewater, on July 5, and executed in London ten days after.

The Bloody Assizes.—A cruel revenge was taken for both risings, especially in Somersetshire, where a body of soldiers under Colonel Kirke, called ironically *Kirke's Lambs*, hanged whole batches of prisoners by the roadside; and a few months later *Judge Jeffreys*, a coarse brutal man, was sent to try those who had joined the rebellion. No less than

320 people were hanged in these *Bloody Assizes*, and 841 sold into slavery to the West Indies, while others only escaped by wholesale bribery.

Attempted Catholic Restoration. — James took advantage of this rebellion to add 10,000 men to his standing army, and put Catholic officers over them. He rewarded Jeffreys by making him Lord Chancellor ; and when Parliament met and reproached him with avoiding the Test Act, he merely *prorogued* it, and *dissolved* it two years later without ever calling it together again. He seems to have imagined that he had only to assert his power and curry favour with the Dissenters by allowing them freedom, and that then he could become an absolute king, and restore Roman Catholicism. He called together the judges, and after dismissing four who would not yield to him, he put others in their place, who gave a judgment that he might *dispense* with the Test Act. After that he put Catholics into every office.

He next began a system called *closeting*, that is, asking men privately if they would vote against the Test Act, and if they refused he deprived them of their office. He even put four Catholic lords, and his own Jesuit confessor Father Petre, on his council, and he revived the Court of High Commission and put Jeffreys at the head. Next he began to interfere with the universities, and appointed a Catholic to be Dean of Christ Church, Oxford ; while, to crown all, he received the Pope's *Nuncio*, or ambassador, with great pomp at court.

Declaration of Indulgence. — The nation was growing angry. The mouth of Parliament being shut, men gathered in the *coffee-houses*, which had become very popular, and discussed daily the strange conduct of the king. Riots took place in the city, and a camp of 13,000 troops had to be stationed at

Hounslow to overawe London. All thoughtful men saw that the king was going too far, and even Pope Innocent XI, a good and wise man, wrote to James to be more moderate. But all warning was in vain. James, under the influence of Father Petre, went doggedly on. He issued for the second time a *Declaration of Indulgence* for Catholics and Dissenters, and ordered all the clergy to read it in the churches.

Trial of the Seven Bishops.—Seven bishops, including the Archbishop of Canterbury, presented a petition to the king begging him not to press the clergy to read it against their conscience. But James' only reply was to order the bishops to be tried for seditious libel. Then the temper of the nation showed itself. Eminent lawyers pressed forward to defend the bishops, the people cheered them on their way to the Tower, and when they were acquitted, June 30, 1688, the bells rang, bonfires were lit, and even the troops at Hounslow raised a loud cheer.

Landing of William of Orange.—The climax had arrived. For some months past English statesmen had been privately urging William of Orange, husband of James' eldest daughter, to come and protect the rights and liberties of England; and they became still more pressing when, on June 10, Mary of Modena, James' second wife, gave birth to a son, who would be the heir to the throne, and of course a Roman Catholic. On June 30, the very day that the bishops were acquitted, Admiral Herbert carried an invitation to William, signed by many leading statesmen. He accepted it, and issued a proclamation declaring that he was coming as Mary's husband to secure a free and legal Parliament.

Flight of James.—James, now thoroughly alarmed,

tried to undo his mistakes, but it was too late. William landed at Torbay Nov. 5, 1688, and without striking a blow arrived at St. James' Palace, London, only a few hours after James left it for ever. William wisely avoided making a prisoner of the king, and James fled to France, after throwing the Great Seal into the Thames. Thus the Revolution was accomplished without a drop of blood being shed. On Jan. 22, 1689, a Convention Parliament was elected, which proclaimed William and Mary to be King and Queen of England. Mary, however, would not govern, but insisted on the power being given to her husband.

CHAPTER XI

RISE OF CONSTITUTIONAL GOVERNMENT

William III, 1689-1702—Anne, 1702-1714

Bill of Rights, 1689.—The accession of William III is an important landmark in English history, for he was made king by the free act of Parliament, as the Anglo-Saxon kings were in former days; and, before electing him, the Lords and Commons drew up a *Declaration of Rights*, which placed a distinct limit to the king's power. This declaration, which afterwards became a Bill, forbade the king to dispense with any laws, or exact money, or keep a standing army without the consent of Parliament. It gave every subject the right to petition against injustice; it provided for the free election of members, free speech in Parliament, and a pure and merciful administration of justice. It is true that the Commons

had made such stipulations before, but the Stuarts had set them aside, and claimed to rule by *divine right*. William III, however, held his crown only by virtue of the *Bill of Rights*; and in his reign Parliament passed an *Act of Settlement*, which set forth that on the death of William and Mary, Anne, the younger daughter of James II, should succeed to the throne, and after her, if she left no children, the Protestant Electress Sophia of Hanover, granddaughter of James I., and her descendants, were to reign. Therefore, from the year 1689, all sovereigns have held their throne by Act of Parliament, which has thus again become the ruling power, like the old Witenagemot of Saxon times.

Opposition to the New King.—William and Mary were crowned in England April 11, 1689, and on the same day were proclaimed King and Queen of Scotland at the Cross of Edinburgh. All men were not, however, willing to acknowledge them, and many bishops and clergy refused to take the oath of allegiance to William. These men were called *non-jurors*. They formed a special party, and elected their own bishops till 1805, when the last non-juror bishop died. Those people who still favoured James were called *Jacobites* (from *Jacobus*, James), and gave some trouble. In Scotland Claverhouse, Viscount Dundee, raised an army in the Highlands to fight for James, but Dundee was killed in battle, and the Highlanders finally took an oath of loyalty. The sad massacre of Glencoe, in which the followers of the clan Macdonald were treacherously murdered in 1692 was, however, a stain on the Scottish succession.

Civil War in Ireland.—In Ireland matters were much worse. James, with the help of Louis XIV, crossed over to Kinsale March 12, 1689, even before William was crowned, and was gladly received

by the south Roman Catholic Irish. In the north, however, the Protestants prepared to defend themselves, and when James arrived before *Londonderry* with an army, the '*prentice boys*' had already closed the gates with 30,000 Protestants within the town. From April 20 to July 30 the citizens held out for William of Orange, and the English fleet could not get in to relieve them. At last two ships with provisions ran straight at the barrier of firewood formed across the river Foyle, and crashed through under the heavy fire of the enemy. Three days later James' army retreated, and Londonderry was relieved. Colonel Wolseley also gained another victory for William at Enniskillen, Aug. 1, 1689.

The north of Ireland was now free, but James still reigned in Dublin, and in his name the Irish Parliament passed severe laws against those who held to William. Marshal Schömburg, William's general, protected the Protestants through the winter, and the next year, in the famous *Battle of the Boyne*, July 1, 1690, William and James fought their decisive battle on Irish ground. William, though wounded early in the day, led his army, and won. James looked on from a distance, and when he saw his army yielding, fled to Dublin, and sailed from Kinsale to France. "Change kings with us and we will fight you again," said an Irish officer, ashamed of James' cowardice. Fighting went on for another year, and then the *Treaty of Limerick*, 1691, ended the war and guaranteed freedom of worship to the Catholics.

Foreign Wars.—No sooner had William quieted Ireland than he had to turn his attention to the war with France. Not only had he to defend his own country, the Netherlands, but he had also to prevent Louis from putting James back on the English throne. In 1690 Germany, Spain, Holland, Brandenburg,

and Savoy had joined in a *Grand Alliance* against France, but the allies were slow and inert, and the very day before the battle of the Boyne the French fleet gained a victory at *Beachy Head* in the Channel, and burnt the village of Teignmouth. From 1692 to 1697 William was constantly fighting abroad; and meanwhile the Jacobites were plotting against him in England, where his reserved and unsociable manner made him anything but a favourite.

Finance of Montague.—The king had also much difficulty in getting money for the wars, as the sovereign could not now raise forced loans, but had to get every penny through Parliament. In 1692 the treasury was empty, and a clever young Whig, Charles Montague, hit upon a plan to raise funds. He persuaded Parliament to invite rich people to lend the Government a million pounds, for which they would receive a yearly interest. This was the beginning of the *National Debt*, of which the interest has always been so steadily paid that people are glad to put their money into it. It has now increased to more than six hundred millions. Montague also borrowed another million and a half and gave the subscribers a charter creating a national bank, called the *Governor and Company of the Bank of England*, which was to do all the Government business. This has been a great success. Its bank-notes are received all over the world, and "safe as the Bank of England" has become a proverb. Lastly, Montague, as Chancellor of the Exchequer in 1696, made a *new silver coinage*, of which the edges were "*milled*," or ribbed, so that rogues could not clip or pare the coins round the edge and destroy their value. Sir Isaac Newton, who was then *Master of the Mint*, took care that the new money should be true and good. There was much loss on the old money, and a *window tax*, which

was not wholly given up till 1851, was levied to make up the deficiency.

Party Government.—While these useful reforms were being made William himself had many difficulties. He had wisely allowed Parliament to act quite freely, and the two parties of *Whig* and *Tory* being sharply divided, the strongest party often gave great trouble to the king's ministers. The Earl of Sunderland therefore proposed that the king should always choose his ministers from the strongest party—that is, if the ministers could not secure a *majority* of members to support them they should resign, and others be chosen in their place. This rule of *party government* was adopted, and is carried on to the present day. Many useful reforms were passed, among which were the *law of treason*, giving accused men a right of defence, and the Act giving fixed salaries to the judges, thus making them independent of political parties.

But though Parliament dealt wisely with home affairs, it did not understand the continental wars as William did, and resented his spending money upon them. In 1694 Queen Mary died, and the Jacobites took advantage of her death to try and murder King William and bring James back. The plot was fortunately disclosed, and made the king more popular for the time, especially as he had just gained a great victory at the *Siege of Namur* (1695). But when this victory brought about peace with France in the *Treaty of Ryswick* in 1697, Parliament at once reduced the army to 10,000 and the navy to 8000 men, and insisted on sending William's Dutch guards away from England.

The Spanish Succession.—William knew that this was very unwise, for Charles II, King of Spain, was dying, and as he had an immense inheritance, and no children, there were several claimants to succeed him.

Among these was the Duke of Anjou, grandson of Louis XIV of France; and if he became king of all the Spanish dominions, and William had no army to keep him in check, then his grandfather Louis was sure to invade the Netherlands. Parliament could not see how this mattered to England, and was vexed with the king for trying to make treaties with Louis. But William saw further. He knew that after taking the Netherlands, Louis would try to restore the Stuarts, unless he could be a match for him.

Triple Alliance.—This was exactly what happened. The Duke of Anjou did become Philip V of Spain in 1699, and Louis did put French garrisons into the Dutch fortresses. Even then Parliament did not wish to let William fight, though they allowed him to make a *Triple Alliance* between England, Holland, and the Emperor Leopold, King of Hungary and Bavaria, to turn Louis out of the Netherlands.

Louis XIV recognises the Pretender.—At last one morning in September 1701 the news came that James II had died in France, and that Louis *had recognised his son James as King of England*. Then at last the people saw their danger and clamoured for war. William dissolved Parliament, and a newly-elected one voted men and money to fight this French king who dared to try and force a king upon England.

Death of William, 1702.—But the grave silent king who had watched over their interests so well was too ill to command the new army. He appointed Churchill, Duke of Marlborough, commander-in-chief, and even before war was declared William died on Feb. 20, 1702. Fortunately the *Act of Settlement*, passed in 1701 (see p. 97), had settled the succession, and Anne was peaceably proclaimed queen. Her half-brother, James Stuart, who was at the French

courts, knew that it was hopeless to claim the throne.

War of the Spanish Succession.—A great part of the reign of *Queen Anne* was occupied with the widespread continental war which William III had tried to prevent. Anne was a dull but good woman, who loved her people; and her husband, Prince George of Denmark, was a quiet good-natured man, who did not interfere in politics. The struggle in this reign was not between the sovereign and the people, but between the Whigs and Tories. The Whigs wanted war with France, the Tories wanted only to defend the English shores. Marlborough, though a moderate Tory, was eager for war, so he had influence with both sides, and, together with Lord Godolphin, had the chief influence in the ministry for eight years. He was greedy of money and not high principled, but he was the most able English general before the time of Wellington; and he had great influence with Queen Anne, partly because his wife had been her friend from childhood. The war in which he gained such grand victories lasted from 1702 to 1713, and in it England, Holland, Austria, Prussia, and Hanover were all bound together in a *grand Alliance* against the stupendous military power of France. Prince Eugene of Savoy and the Duke of Marlborough were the most noted generals on the side of the Alliance, and a great part of the fighting was in the Netherlands. But the most famous victory was one gained by Marlborough and Prince Eugene at *Blenheim*, in Bavaria, Aug. 13, 1704, when two-thirds of the French army were killed, wounded, or taken prisoners, and the might of Louis XIV humbled. A few days before this battle, *Gibraltar* had been taken by Admiral Rooke, and it has been kept by England ever since. Two years later, in 1706,

Marlborough gained another important victory at *Ramillies*, in Flanders, and took possession of nine strong fortresses on the borders of France. By this time, being defeated on all sides, Louis XIV now began to wish for peace, and England could have ended the war. But unfortunately the war was popular, and the Whigs continued it for their own selfish ends.

Union of Scotland and England, 1707.—Ever since the victory of Blenheim the Whigs had been very powerful in Parliament, and Marlborough was obliged to keep them in good temper, and persuade the queen to choose Whig ministers. On the whole they governed the country well, and one of the best measures they passed was the *Union of Scotland and England*. At that time all the goods passing between Scotland and England paid a heavy duty, and, as the Scots were not allowed to trade with other countries belonging to England, this pressed very heavily upon the people. Therefore, as the Scots had a separate Parliament and laws of their own, they decided in 1703 that after Anne's death they would have a Protestant king of their own and *not the same king as the English*. This would no doubt have led to serious evils, and the English Parliament resolved in 1707 to abolish the hated duties and give the Scots an equal right with England of trading with other countries, while the Scots on their side gave up their separate Parliament; and for the future there was but one Parliament for the *United Kingdom of Great Britain*, the Scots sending forty-five members to the Commons and sixteen to the Lords. From that time the crosses of St. George and St. Andrew have been blended in the *Union Jack*.

Prosperity in England.—Though there was war abroad, there was now peace and prosperity at home,

and trade and manufactures increased. Bristol, always an important town, grew larger by the trade with the West Indies, while Manchester, Norwich, Leeds, Sheffield, and Liverpool became great centres of manufacture. Trade was so flourishing that the ministers had no difficulty in borrowing money for the war, and the National Debt increased. As people lent more and more money to the Government, they also became interested in avoiding civil war and riots of all kinds. In 1708, when James Stuart the Pretender threatened to cross to Scotland with French troops, there was almost a panic on the Stock Exchange, showing how much people valued a steady government which would pay their interest. On the other hand England at this time began to lose a very useful class of men, in the yeomen who cultivated their own farms. These men suffered by the frequent enclosure of waste lands, and many of them sold their farms to wealthy merchants, and either rented them instead of owning them, or turned to other work. In this way a number of independent landowners ceased to exist.

Penal Laws in Ireland.—The one blot on the peace in Queen Anne's dominions was Ireland. The wise Treaty of Limerick was not fairly kept, for the Catholics were cruelly treated by the English and Irish Protestants, who were alarmed by the persecution of the Protestants abroad. Penal laws were passed against the priests and their flocks, and many unjust restrictions were put on Irish manufactures. If only Ireland had been as justly treated as Scotland at this time much future trouble might have been spared.

The Tory Reaction.—All this time the war dragged on. Marlborough gained victories at Oudenarde, Lille, and Malplaquet, and though the French had

some success in Spain, Louis again proposed peace in 1709. Marlborough still rejected it, and he made the great mistake of asking to be made Captain-General of the forces for life. This displeased the nation, for since Cromwell's time the people dreaded a great man supported by an army. Just at this time Queen Anne quarrelled with the Duchess of Marlborough and made a friend of a Mrs. Masham, cousin to the Tory leader, *Robert Harley*, and the Whig ministry foolishly impeached a clergyman, *Dr. Sacheverell*, who preached a sermon against them and upheld *divine right*. This brought a change of ministry. The people sympathised with Dr. Sacheverell, and lit bonfires and rung the bells when he was set free.

Then Harley and another brilliant Tory speaker called St. John attacked Marlborough, and accused him of carrying on the war for his own benefit. The people turned upon their old idol and taxed him with misusing public money; the duchess was sent away from the court, and Marlborough himself left England, a victim to ingratitude, caused by his having presumed too much upon his great success.

Peace of Utrecht, 1713.—Harley was now created Earl of Oxford, St. John became Viscount Bolingbroke, and the new House of Commons in which they were ministers was full of Tories. They made peace at once with France. England kept Gibraltar and Minorca, and was given Hudson's Bay, Newfoundland, and Acadia, now called Nova Scotia. Louis promised never again to support the Pretender, and England gained the sole right of trading for negro slaves with the Spanish colonies, and of sending one merchant ship a year to the South Seas.

Death of Queen Anne, 1714.—It was now known that Queen Anne was in bad health, and could not live long. The old Electress Sophia of Hanover

was dead, and by the Act of Settlement her son George, Elector of Hanover, was the heir to the throne. As he was German, and could not speak English, the Jacobites secretly hoped to proclaim the Pretender. Even Oxford and Bolingbroke wished this, as they knew that George would favour the Whigs. But Queen Anne was seized with apoplexy before their plans were ripe. She died on Aug. 1, 1714, and the great Whig lords proclaimed George I. king.

CHAPTER XII

HANOVERIAN KINGS

George I, 1714—George II, 1727

SEVEN weeks after Queen Anne's death George I., Elector of Hanover, landed with his only son at Greenwich. He was well received, for the nation wanted their present peace and security to continue. The wars on the continent, in which England had fought chiefly to keep out the Stuarts, had cost so much that the National Debt had increased to *thirty-eight millions* of pounds. Now they wanted a king who would let Parliament govern and not stir up strife. George I. was exactly the right man. He was honest and straightforward, reigned according to law, and interfered as little as possible. The chief disadvantage in his being a foreigner was, that in this and the following reigns Hanover sometimes involved England in wars. The new Parliament was nearly all Whig. Oxford and Bolingbroke were impeached for intriguing with the Jacobites. Bolingbroke

escaped to France, and Oxford was imprisoned for two years.

Riots of 1715.—For some time the Jacobites were restless. In Scotland the Highlanders rose under the Earl of Mar, in favour of the Pretender, and the Jacobites of the north of England joined them. But they were defeated by the Duke of Argyll at Sheriffmuir on Nov. 13, 1715, and the rebellion was soon over. In the Midland Counties some serious riots also took place, which were the cause of the *Riot Act* being passed in 1715. By this Act, if rioters do not disperse as soon as it is publicly read, then the authorities may use force.

Septennial Parliaments, 1716.—These rebellions made people anxious for a settled government, and in 1716 an Act was passed allowing the king to keep the same Parliament for seven years. The law remains the same to this day.

The South Sea Bubble, 1711-1721.—Great Britain had now a very wide trade with Turkey, Italy, Spain, Portugal, Holland, Germany, Russia, Norway, the Baltic, America, Africa, and the West Indies, and many new trading companies were started, which made large profits. The most popular of these was the *South Sea Company*, founded in 1711, to trade with South America. This Company expected to make enormous profits, and the Directors bid against the Bank of England, and offered the Government to pay off seven and a half millions of the National Debt if they would allow them special trading privileges. Good men of business saw that it would be impossible to make enough profit to pay such a large sum, and *Robert Walpole*, a clear-headed Norfolk squire, protested in Parliament against the compact. Nevertheless the Government passed the Bill, and all England went wild over South Sea shares. People

were so eager to buy, that £1000 was paid for a share of £100. Before long the bubble burst, the Company failed, and hundreds were ruined. Then the nation called loudly for Walpole, who had opposed the Bill, to be made Minister.

The First Prime Minister.—For the next twenty years Walpole was the leading man in England. As the king could not speak English, Walpole took his place as chairman of the *Cabinet Council* with the title of *Prime Minister*, and from that day forward the first minister has always taken this place, and is for the time the real ruler of the country. Thus while England has an hereditary sovereign giving stability to the Government, the actual control is in the hands of a Prime Minister and his colleagues, who can be changed as public opinion alters. This form of *constitutional government* has been found safest and best.

Walpole's Administration, 1721-1742.—The first ten years of Walpole's administration were very peaceful. He was a rough, sensible country gentleman, and he had great influence with the Whigs. He also did not scruple to buy votes for the support of his Government and, though this was in itself bad, he fortunately used it to keep the country at peace. When George I. died of apoplexy in 1727, George II could not do without Walpole, though he did not like him, and the change of kings made no difference to the country.

Walpole was the first minister who saw how much wiser it would be to allow the colonies to *trade with other countries* besides England, and he let Georgia and Carolina send rice direct to other parts of Europe. He also tried to pass an *Excise Bill*, by which duties on foreign goods would be collected in the warehouses and shops instead of at the ports. This

would have stopped a good deal of smuggling, but people did not understand it, and he had to let it drop.

Whitfield and Wesley.—It was during these years of quiet prosperity that two earnest Oxford students, *Whitfield* and *Wesley*, began to preach in the open air to the people, who were much neglected by the clergy of those days. This led to the foundation of the two sects of *Methodists* and *Wesleyans*, who separated from the Church.

Fall of Walpole, 1742.—Unfortunately Walpole had one great fault, he was jealous, and quarrelled with all able ministers who worked with him. Thus he gradually lost his best supporters, and a strong *Opposition* grew up in the House of Commons, which blamed Walpole for his peace policy and his bribery. The men of this party, among whom was a young cornet, *William Pitt*, wished for war with Spain because she opposed English trade in South America; and they took advantage of a silly story by one Jenkins, whose ear the Spaniards cut off, to force Walpole to declare war in 1739. The war was not successful, and people said Walpole had not managed it properly, and called for his dismissal. The king made him Earl of Orford, and he resigned all his posts and went to the House of Lords in 1742.

Continental Wars.—The new ministers were quite ready to plunge further into war. A great struggle for power had begun in 1740 between Maria Theresa of Austria and Frederick the Great of Prussia, and the other nations were drawn into it. England took the side of Austria, partly in order to defend the king's dominions in Hanover, and partly because France and England were struggling for power all over the world, and France at this time sided with Prussia. George II himself defeated the French at *Dettingen*

in 1743. But as England's real object was to weaken France, she did not always take the same side. Thirteen years later, in 1756, when France was on the side of Austria, the English joined Frederick the Great of Prussia.

Bonnie Prince Charlie. — In this first war the French retaliated by sending 15,000 troops to Scotland to fight for Charles Edward, the Young Pretender; and though this attempt failed, yet in July 1745 Bonnie Prince Charlie did land in Scotland, took possession of Edinburgh, and cut Sir John Cope's troops to pieces at *Prestonpans* Sept. 21, 1745. Six weeks later he marched into England, but found no encouragement. The people did not want civil war. He went back to Scotland, and gained one victory at *Falkirk*, but was completely defeated at *Culloden*, near Inverness, April 1746, and escaped back to France in September. This was the last Jacobite rebellion.

England and France in India. — In this same year, the French and English were also fighting in a far-distant region, disputing who should be master of India. The East India Company, founded in Elizabeth's reign, had by this time a large number of factories and stations on the shores of Hindustan at Madras, Bombay, and Calcutta (see Map). The French also had a Company and a fort at *Pondicherry*, near Madras. The rest of the country was governed by native princes, and the French hoped, by encouraging disputes between these princes, to become masters of South India. It seemed as if the English would be driven out of Madras; for their ally, Nawab Muhammad Ali, was shut up in Trichinopoly, and besieged by the French. It was then, in 1751, that *Robert Clive*, a wild young English clerk, who had already fought the French in 1746,

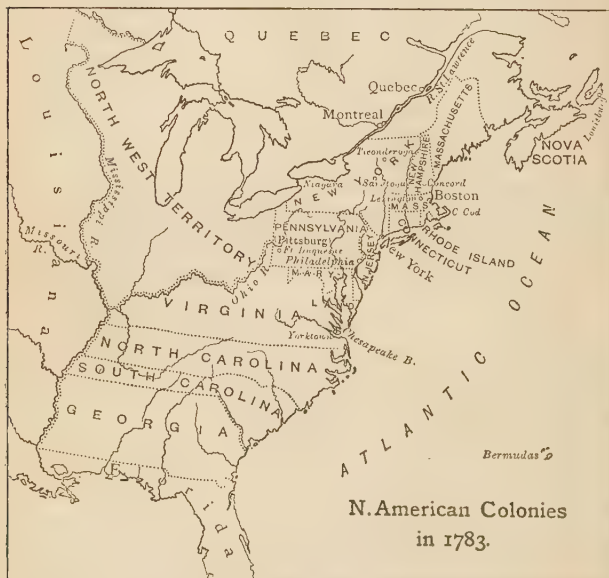
formed the daring scheme of seizing Arcot, a fortified town near, and relieving Trichinopoly. He was completely successful, the Nawab was released, and



after this the French were forced to give in, and peace was signed in 1754.

English and French in North America,—Then

war started up at the other end of the world, in the same great struggle between French and English colonists. The English who had migrated to America during and after the reign of James I. had by this time formed thirteen flourishing colonies along the Atlantic coast. The French also had colonised



South Canada (now called Quebec) to the north of the English colonies, and Louisiana to the west (see Map). The North-West Territory, between the two French settlements, was held by the American Indians. Now the French wished to keep the English out of this North-West Territory, and began building forts across from Louisiana to Canada. If they

had succeeded they would have cut the English off from all the inland country, and the great English-speaking land of America might never have been. The colonists therefore fought for the borderland, and, in 1755, Major-General Braddock, with 2000 men, was sent out from England to help them. Unfortunately he did not understand the country, and half his army was destroyed by the French and Indians in ambush, and he himself killed.

Disaster all over the World, 1756.—This was a trying time for England. The great *Seven Years' War* had just broken out on the Continent, in which England sided with Prussia, and France with Austria. In 1756 the French seized Minorca, and Admiral Byng, with ten English ships, failed to regain it, for which he was most unjustly tried and shot the following year. The Duke of Cumberland was defeated by the French in Hanover, and had to sign a humiliating Convention at Closterzeven, while in North America Braddock's force had been destroyed. To crown all, news arrived from India that the Nawab of Bengal, Surajah Dowlah, had taken Calcutta and imprisoned 146 Englishmen in a strong room, ever after called the *Black Hole of Calcutta*, where all but twenty-three were suffocated in the most horrible suffering. England had never been so low as in those years, 1756-1757.

Pitt's Administration.—The turn of fortune came through the energy of one man, and his insight in choosing the right men to help him. *William Pitt* had for some time been rising in the Government, first as Paymaster, and afterwards as Secretary of State, when he had really the direction of affairs, although the Duke of Newcastle remained Prime Minister in name. Pitt was clever, honourable, energetic, and self-reliant. "I am sure I can save

the country," he said, "and no one else can," and he justified this boastful statement by fulfilling it. He threw himself heart and soul into the struggle on the Continent, in North America, and in India. He strengthened the navy, organised the militia, and formed the Highlanders into regiments; and he sent troops to the assistance of Frederick the Great, and gave him a yearly subsidy, so that he was able to gain a number of splendid victories. "It is necessary to ask every morning what new victory there is," said Horace Walpole, "for fear of missing one."

England's Power Supreme in India.—In India also the English were gaining ground. Clive had just returned to Madras when the Black Hole tragedy took place. He received orders to retake Calcutta, and in six months it was done; and when he found that the Nawab was acting treacherously he resolved to depose him. With an army of 3000 men he attacked and defeated an army of 60,000 natives, who fled before the English cannon, and won the *Battle of Plassy* June 23, 1757. This battle decided the fate of India. Fighting went on there for some years with the French, but in 1761 the English took Pondicherry and became masters of India.

Conquest of Canada, 1759.—The same success followed the English troops in Canada. Pitt appealed to the colonists to attack Quebec and Montreal, and gave their officers equal rank with royal officers as encouragement. He sent over General Abercromby, and under him able young officers, Amherst, Wolfe, and Howe, to fight on land, and also a fleet to attack the French by sea. One after another important places were taken, till, in 1759, the fate of the campaign depended upon the taking of Quebec, which seemed impregnable. One day, however, General Wolfe discovered at the base of the Heights of Abraham a

narrow path leading to the summit. He took his troops up by night, and at daybreak the stronghold was attacked and taken. The brave generals on both sides, *Montcalm* and *Wolfe*, died of their wounds, and their names are inscribed side by side on a monument raised on the Heights above the city. The war went on till Montreal was taken by the English, Sept. 8, 1760, but the real conquest of Canada took place at Quebec.

Pitt had fulfilled his boast. England had become a great power among the nations. He now retired from office Oct. 5, 1761, because George III, who came to the throne in 1760, wished for peace, and Pitt wanted to declare war with Spain, that country being in league with France.

George III made his former tutor, the Earl of Bute, Prime Minister. After all, however, he had to make war against France and Spain, and it was not till the *Treaty of Paris* was signed in 1763 that the Seven Years' War was over. By this treaty England gained Canada, Florida, and the French possessions east of the Mississippi, and got back Minorca; while in India she became the ruling power.

CHAPTER XIII

WAR OF AMERICAN INDEPENDENCE—CONTINENTAL WAR AGAINST NAPOLEON I

George III, 1760-1820

George III and his People.—George III, son of Frederick, Prince of Wales, who had died in 1751, and grandson of George II, had been king for three

years when the Treaty of Paris was signed. He was a good, conscientious man. His quiet home-life with Queen Charlotte and their fifteen children, and his patience under sad attacks of insanity, won the hearts of his people. He was much beloved, and did good to England by making the manners more pure, religion more revered, and the people more loyal. Unfortunately he was a better man than he was a statesman. He was narrow-minded and obstinate, and his determination that his will should be law, led him into serious blunders. He upheld the slave-trade, he refused justice to Ireland, and he lost the American colonies.

George III and his Ministers.—The chief struggle at first was between the king and his ministers. During the last two reigns ministers had become very powerful. More than half the members of Parliament were chosen by the great Whig families, and elected in small boroughs where there were very few voters, while large towns, such as Manchester and others, had no members. Therefore the Whig ministers could control more than half the votes in Parliament, and did not scruple to buy others by bribery. George III came to the throne determined to be master. He dismissed Pitt, as we have seen, because he opposed him, and made *Lord Bute* prime minister. Bute, however, was very unpopular, and was succeeded in 1763 by *George Grenville*, a good but not a wise man, who began the quarrel with the American colonies.

The American Stamp and Revenue Acts.—The war with the French in America had cost a great deal of money, and Grenville, to raise funds to pay for it, passed an Act that all law papers in America should be taxed by bearing a stamp, as in England. Now the American colonists had always made their

own taxes, and though they would no doubt have given the money, they objected to be taxed by England. Pitt declared they were right, *because they had no representatives in Parliament to see that just taxes were imposed*. Grenville was dismissed by the king, and Lord Rockingham, who became minister, repealed the tax. But the king did not like Rockingham, and the next year, 1766, the *Duke of Grafton* became minister, with Pitt as Lord Privy Seal. Pitt was now in ill-health, and as he was made Earl of Chatham, and went to the House of Lords, he had very little influence. While he was away ill, Townshend, Chancellor of the Exchequer, passed a *Revenue Act*, imposing duties on tea and other articles imported into America, and thus the old irritation began again.

Parliament and the People.—In England, too, the ministry was very unpopular, and the people of Middlesex showed their discontent by electing as member in 1769 a popular but worthless man named *Wilkes*, who had returned from France, to which he fled some years before to escape imprisonment for libelling the king and Lord Bute. The king was so angry at his return and election, that Government interfered, and Wilkes was sent to the King's Bench prison to undergo his term of imprisonment. The consequence was that serious riots took place in London. The people elected Wilkes four times running, and when the House accepted his rival, Colonel Luttrell, as the real member for Middlesex, they retaliated by making Wilkes an alderman of the city as soon as he came out of prison.

The next year, 1771, another conflict arose between Parliament and people, because the House of Commons objected to the newspapers publishing accounts of what went on in the House.

Eight printers were arrested by the officers of the Commons, but Wilkes, as alderman, would not condemn them, and the Lord Mayor put the officers into prison for arresting citizens without a warrant. The people sided with the Lord Mayor, and the Commons let the matter drop. Since then reports of Parliamentary debates have always been published, and the newspapers have improved in consequence. The *Morning Chronicle* was first published in 1770, the *Morning Post* in 1772, and the *Times* in 1785. In 1774 Wilkes was again elected to Parliament, and allowed to take his seat.

Rise of the Middle Classes.—In fact the middle classes of England were now making their voice heard, for the manufacturing, mining, and trading classes were growing rich and powerful. The invention of spinning-machines and steam-engines, and the use of coal in smelting iron, increased manufactures enormously; and though ignorant men at first broke the machines and burnt the mills, yet in the end they saw how work was increased by them. At this time, too, the Duke of Bridgewater made the first canal from Worsley to Manchester, and it was not long before others followed, and barges carried goods all over England.

The farmers also flourished, for population increased rapidly with prosperity, and as corn and other food could not then come from abroad without paying heavy duties, they got a high price for their produce. The people who suffered were the poorer classes, who had to pay heavily for their food, and large numbers of them became a burden on the Poor-law. But farmers, merchants, manufacturers, artisans, and mechanics became well off, and as they had really very little voice in electing members to Parliament, which settled the laws of commerce and the

customs duties, complaints and riots often followed the measures passed by the House of Commons.

American Tea Tax.—Meanwhile, in 1770, *Lord North* became Prime Minister, and, as he was willing to do anything the king wished, George III felt that at last he was master. He was all the more determined to make the American colonists obey him, and in this the Parliament and the people agreed with him. But the colonists did not. It was a question of principle. Lord North had taken off all but the tax on tea, which only brought in £300 a year, and for this paltry sum the hopeless quarrel went on. Lord Chatham, and Burke, the great Irish orator, were the only men who saw the American side of the question rightly. The king and Lord North would not give way, and at last, on Dec. 16, 1773, a body of Americans, dressed as Red Indians, boarded a ship of tea which tried to unload at Boston, and threw all the tea to the bottom of the harbour.

American War begins.—Then Lord North closed the port of Boston, and shut out all trade from the city. Twelve of the thirteen colonies, roused to anger at this, sent members to a Congress, in which it was resolved that they would not trade at all with Great Britain till Boston port was reopened. So matters stood in September 1774, and in April 1775 Parliament declared that a rebellion existed in America, and war began on April 19, when a small band of colonists opposed the Government troops at Lexington, near Concord, and the first blood was shed (see Map, p. 112).

For the next eight years the war went on. At the first battle of *Bunker Hill*, May 1775, the colonists, though beaten, made a good resistance; and *George Washington*, a brave and able soldier whom Congress

appointed commander-in-chief, soon made their army very efficient. As the war went on the best men became determined to break off from England, and the famous *Declaration of Independence* was signed on the 4th of July 1776. The next year the English general, Burgoyne, was surrounded at *Saratoga*, and his whole army forced to surrender Oct. 17, 1777. France, eager to avenge the Seven Years' War, now took the side of the colonists.

Lord Chatham made one more effort to stop the mischief. On April 7 the aged statesman rose in the House of Lords to plead for reconciliation with the colonists, and to bid defiance to his old enemy France. The Duke of Richmond replied. Chatham rose again to speak, and fell back in a swoon. A month later he died, and all hope of peace was at an end.

England was now sorely beset. In 1779 Spain joined France and besieged *Gibraltar*, which Colonel Elliot defended for three years. Russia, Sweden, Denmark, Holland, and Prussia all entered into an armed neutrality to prevent the English searching their vessels for goods supplied to the enemy; and the Irish, who suffered much from English restrictions on their trade, were inclined to rebel. In England the uneasy feeling showed itself in riots which broke out in London under *Lord George Gordon*, and were only put down by the military. Lord North's Government had become very unpopular, and when news came from America that Lord Cornwallis with 4000 men had been forced to surrender to General Washington at *Yorktown* Oct. 18, 1781, Lord North was in despair, and resigned in March 1782.

England acknowledges American Independence.

—The new ministers hastened to quiet the Irish by repealing some of the oppressive laws, and by

giving them a *free Parliament* uncontrolled by England. Then they began to arrange for peace. Fortunately, on April 12, Admiral Rodney utterly defeated the French fleet on its way to Jamaica, and Lord Howe raised the siege of Gibraltar in September. These victories gave England some advantage, and a treaty of peace was signed at *Versailles* January 1783. France gained nothing, Spain gained Minorca and Florida, and England, in September 1783, ratified a treaty with the colonists acknowledging the *independence of the United States of America*.

India and Warren Hastings.—After Lord North resigned in 1782 there were no less than three ministries in twenty-two months, and the last of these fell in December 1783, because the House of Lords threw out an India Bill brought forward by a very clever statesman, *Charles James Fox*. After the French left India, the English East India Company had great power over the native princes, and did not always use it fairly. Lord Clive went out in 1765 and put things in rather better order, making fair treaties with the princes. But abuses again crept in when he left, and after a grievous war in Madras, and a terrible famine sadly mismanaged in Bengal, it was clear some control was needed. So in 1773 Lord North passed a *Regulating Act* uniting Bengal, Bombay, and Madras under one Governor-General, and the first one appointed was a brave resolute man, *Warren Hastings*, who had done well for India. He had a very difficult task, and as his council was composed of men who were jealous of him and thwarted him, he was driven to do many harsh and wrong things, though on the whole he did his work well. The quarrels of the council reached England, and *Fox* brought forward a Bill for seven commissioners to be appointed by Parliament to form the

Government of India. This angered the king, the Lords threw out the Bill, and the ministry resigned in 1783.

Pitt, Prime Minister.—The king now called upon a young man, not twenty-four years of age, to form a ministry. This was *William Pitt*, second son of the late Earl of Chatham. The Whigs laughed when so young a “boy,” as they called Pitt, accepted office. But before long the laugh was against them. Pitt was upright and able, and in time he broke down the power of the great Whig Houses, and remained Prime Minister for seventeen years. Then after an interval of about two years he came into office again till his death in 1805.

England had not been so prosperous for a long time as in the early part of Pitt's rule. In 1776 Adam Smith showed, in a work called the *Wealth of Nations*, that oppressive trade laws are a mistake, and that a man ought to be free to gain what he can by his labour. Pitt had studied this book, and he began to lower the duties on tea, spirits, and other articles. He also by economy reduced the National Debt, and he published a strict account of all money received and paid by Government, thus preventing a great deal of jobbery. He also made a commercial treaty with France, abolishing duties on many goods passing between the two countries. He even tried to reform the House of Commons, and give members to large towns and counties, and also to give free trade to Ireland. But the people were not yet prepared for election reform, and the Irish, who now made their own laws, would not accept an English Bill, so both these measures failed. The inconvenience of a separate Irish Parliament was shown in another matter, for in 1788 the king went out of his mind, and the Irish Parliament wished the Prince of Wales to have full

power as Regent, while the English Parliament, who knew what a bad character he bore, wanted to limit his power. Fortunately the king got well and the discussion ended.

Trial of Warren Hastings. — One of the noted events at this time was the impeachment and trial of Warren Hastings. In 1784 Pitt passed a Bill by which a Board of Control was appointed to govern in India, and this continued till our own day (1858). In that year Hastings returned home and Lord Cornwallis became Governor-General. On his return Hastings was attacked by Fox, Burke, and others for oppressing the native princes in India. The trial lasted seven years, and ended by Hastings being acquitted, which was only justice, for if Hastings had made mistakes he had also left the British possessions in India strong and at peace.

The French Revolution, 1789. — While England was thus rejoicing in peace and prosperity, a revolution broke out all at once in France, which threw Europe into confusion for the next twenty-five years. The French, less fortunate than the English, had no Parliament to keep the king and nobles in check, and the lower classes were cruelly taxed and oppressed. Louis XVI tried to put matters right by calling together the *Great Assembly of France*, but this only brought the discontent to a head, and on July 14, 1789, an insurrection broke out in Paris, and the king was practically kept a prisoner for three years.

At first the English were glad that the French people had rebelled against their oppressors. Pitt hoped they would have a constitutional government like England, and Fox was delighted at the struggle for liberty. But Burke saw at once what confusion such an upheaval would cause, and even Pitt grew alarmed when the mob in England sympathised with

the wild doings in France. The other nations of Europe, too, were afraid of sedition spreading to their people, and in 1792 Austria and Prussia interfered to make the French restore their king to power. The result was that the Parisians rose in revolt and cut off the king's head in February 1793, and the *Reign of Terror* began. They also published a Convention offering to help all nations to get their liberty.

War with France. — Matters became now so serious that Pitt very unwillingly joined Austria and Prussia against France, and for the next nine years England was constantly at war with France; while the other nations joined first one side, and then the other, in a most bewildering manner. In the beginning England, Spain, Holland, Austria, and Prussia were allied against France. The war was not successful, but the English fleet under Lord Howe gained one great victory near *Brest* June 1, 1794. Then the French captured the Dutch fleet, and the Dutch republicans changed sides and joined the French. Curiously enough this was the cause of our gaining the Dutch settlements at the Cape of Good Hope, for the Dutch colonists, fearing to fall into the hands of France, put themselves under English protection. On the continent the French army had great successes; Prussia retired from the contest, and Spain, jealous of England, joined France.

England and Ireland Discontented. — Pitt now wished to make peace. Trade was almost at a standstill, the war cost money, and two bad harvests caused serious famine. The London mob cried "Bread, bread," behind the king's carriage, and seditious meetings and writings took place every day. The Irish, too, were unhappy and restless. The Protestant Parliament at Dublin, uncontrolled by England, oppressed the Roman Catholics; the landlords

oppressed the peasants, and a body of men called the *United Irishmen* invited over a French army to set up a republic. Fogs and storms drove the French back, but all these troubles made Pitt try to arrange peace. The French Government were, however, so elated by the victories gained by their young Corsican general, Napoleon Bonaparte, that they would not listen to terms.

Naval Victories.—The war had to go on, and now came the time when England's fleet again saved her from destruction. The Spanish, French, and Dutch fleets expected to sweep the seas, but one by one they were defeated. Before the Dutch fleet could put to sea, Admiral Jervis, with young Nelson as his Comodore, defeated the Spanish fleet off *Cape St. Vincent* Feb. 14, 1797; and though unhappily the English sailors mutinied at the Nore against bad pay and harsh treatment, they returned to their duty in time to defeat the Dutch fleet off *Camperdown*, in Holland, on Oct. 11. This was followed by the famous *Victory of the Nile* Aug. 1, 1798, when Nelson sent his ships between the land and the French fleet, and utterly destroyed it in Aboukir Bay.

Still the country was not safe. Napoleon, after winning some victories in Egypt, returned to France and began planning the invasion of England. Meanwhile Sir Ralph Abercromby defeated the French on land at Alexandria March 2, 1801, and the whole army capitulated; and a few months afterwards Nelson put his blind eye to his telescope at the battle of *Copenhagen* and, fighting on in spite of the order to retreat, overcame the Danish fleet. The disaster to the French army at Alexandria led to a short peace, concluded at the *Treaty of Amiens*, March 1802.

Union of England and Ireland.—By this time Pitt was no longer Prime Minister, and we must now see why he resigned. Ireland had continued in a state of rebellion. In 1798 the rebels had been routed at *Vinegar Hill*, near Wexford, and after that a French squadron had actually landed and been defeated by Lord Cornwallis. Since Ireland was never at peace under her own Parliament, Pitt determined to abolish it, and to bring Irish members to sit in the English house, as the Scotch members had been brought in Queen Anne's reign. An *Act of Union* was passed through the Irish Parliament, partly by bribery, and partly by Pitt promising to give the Roman Catholics equal rights with the Protestants. In January 1801 the Irish members took their seats in the English Parliament, and the Cross of St. Patrick was added to the Union Jack. But when Pitt wished to fulfil his promise, and bring in a Bill to relieve the Catholics, the king would not let him, having been persuaded that it was against his coronation oath. As Pitt could not keep his word he felt bound in honour to resign in January 1801.

Pitt's Second Administration, 1804-1805.—But he did not remain long out of power. Napoleon became Emperor of France in 1804, and prepared to invade England. The nation was roused at once. Three hundred thousand volunteers organised themselves to defend their country, and Pitt was called back to office. The war began again with vigour, and Nelson started off to the West Indies in pursuit of the French and Spanish fleets. He came upon them off *Cape Trafalgar*, near Gibraltar, Oct. 21, 1805, and there won the famous victory which cost him his life. "*This day England expects every man to do his duty,*" was the signal he hoisted before the battle began, and the words will for ever ring in the ears of Englishmen,

as the dying legacy of the bravest admiral England has known. Nelson fell on his own ship the *Victory*, and England's great minister was soon to follow him. Pitt heard of the victory of Trafalgar, but not two months after, Napoleon crushed the Austrian and Russian armies at *Austerlitz*, near Vienna. The news of this disaster killed Pitt, who was already overwrought. He died Jan. 23, 1806, at the early age of forty-seven.

Abolition of the Slave Trade.—After Pitt's death his great rival, *Fox*, joined Lord Grenville in a ministry known as the *Ministry of all the Talents*. This ministry will always be remembered as the one which passed the Act forbidding any English vessel to *carry slaves for sale*. For a long time the slave-trade had been almost entirely in the hands of Englishmen, and in 1788 three men, Wilberforce, Clarkson, and Macaulay, formed an association to put an end to its horrors. Pitt had struggled to help them, and Fox had laboured for it all his life. He succeeded at last, though he did not live to see it. He died Sept. 3, 1806, and the Act was passed on Jan. 2, 1807.

Peninsular War, 1808.—Meanwhile Napoleon, baffled in his plans of invading England, began to destroy her commerce. He passed a *decree* at Berlin Nov. 21, 1806, declaring the English ports to be under blockade, and forbidding all nations on the continent to trade with England. This was a heavy blow, and in return England seized the Danish fleet, and declared all ports of France and her allies under blockade; an unwise step, which led to war with the United States in 1812. Shortly before this, in 1808, Napoleon, who was carrying everything before him, had made his brother Joseph King of Spain, and attacked Portugal. The proud Spaniards in their indignation called on England for help, and *Canning*,

the able minister of Foreign Affairs in England, sent two small armies to Portugal under Sir Arthur Wellesley (afterwards Duke of Wellington) and Sir John Moore. The troops were too few, and though Wellesley gained a victory at *Vimiero* Aug. 21, 1808, he was soon recalled to England, while Sir John Moore, who was ordered to advance into Spain, had not men enough to face Napoleon, who was coming to meet him. He made a masterly retreat, and embarked all his men safely in the night at *Corunna*, after a fierce battle with Marshal Soult. He himself was killed by a cannon-ball and buried at dead of night by the last company of the comrades whose safety he had secured.

Canning now sent out a stronger army, and for the next four years Wellesley was employed driving Napoleon's best generals out of Spain. He was badly supplied with troops and provisions, but he succeeded. He never allowed his troops to plunder; he paid the peasants for all he took, and he was careful of his men, while Napoleon shed blood recklessly. So, step by step, Wellesley, now Lord Wellington, fought his way. He defeated Soult at *Oporto* May 12, and Marshal Victor at *Talavera* July 28, 1809, and then spent the winter in Portugal, constructing three famous lines of fortresses; so that Marshal Massena, repulsed at *Busaco* Sept. 29, 1810, could not break through. Wellington had purposely stripped the country of food, and the Spaniards harassed the French troops, of whom 45,000 died from skirmishes, disease, and hunger. Meanwhile Wellington and his generals advanced steadily, and gained battles at *Ciudad Rodrigo* and *Badajos*, *Salamanca* and *Vittoria*, and finally, in the long siege of *St. Sebastian* in 1813, put an end to the power of France in Spain.

Napoleon Conquered.—These victories gave Europe

courage to rise against their common foe. When Napoleon pushed forward into Russia and threatened Moscow, the Russians, following Wellington's example, burnt their city, and so destroyed all food and shelter, and Napoleon retreating in a bitter winter lost 380,000 troops. Still he gathered more, and gained several victories in Germany, but his enemies were closing round him. He was utterly defeated at *Leipzig* Oct. 19, 1813, and when at last the victorious allies entered Paris, March 31, 1814, he abdicated, and was banished to the Island of Elba. Louis XVIII, brother of Louis XVI, was placed on the throne; but eleven months after, Europe was startled by the news that Napoleon had escaped, landed at Cannes, and gathered a large army. In three weeks he was emperor again, and the French king had fled. The allies lost no time. Armies from England, Prussia, Austria, and Russia gathered for the attack, and on the field of *Waterloo*, June 18, 1815, Napoleon and Wellington met for the first time face to face in battle. The fight was a terrible one, but the English held their ground, and the Prussians came up just in time to secure a great victory. The war was over, Europe was saved, and Napoleon was banished to St. Helena till his death in 1821.

Effects of the War.—The English nation went almost mad with joy when peace was proclaimed. They had strained every nerve for twelve years, and for the last three had also been at war with the United States. The king had gone hopelessly out of his mind in 1810, and the Prince of Wales was Regent. The National Debt had increased to 840 millions, and when the disbanded soldiers returned from the war, trade and manufactures were so low that there was no work to be had. The farmers and landowners, alarmed at a fall in the price of corn, persuaded Par-

liament to put an exorbitant duty on foreign grain, and when a bad harvest came in 1816 it caused a famine. The next four years were full of trouble. Riots broke out among the Kent labourers and the colliers and miners of the Midlands, and the machine-breakers caused havoc at Nottingham. A serious riot at Manchester was put down by the soldiers, and more than fifty people wounded.

The Regent, too, was very unpopular. He deserted his first wife, Mrs. Fitzherbert, who, being a Roman Catholic, had no legal position; and he married Princess Caroline of Brunswick, a coarse woman, with whom he soon quarrelled. Their only child, Princess Charlotte, who married Prince Leopold of Saxe-Coburg, died very young, and her only child died with her. Thus there was no direct heir to the throne, and the only marriage of the old king's sons which pleased the people was that of the Duke of Kent to the sister of Prince Leopold. The only child by this marriage is our beloved queen, Alexandrina Victoria, who was born May 24, 1819. Her father died eight months after.

Death of George III.—The poor old king, blind and insane, was now dying. He sank to rest, beloved of his people, on Jan. 29, 1820, and his son, the Prince Regent, became king as George IV. During George III's long reign of fifty-nine years much had happened. America had been lost; India had been gained; Pitt had reformed abuses and raised the country; Napoleon had done his best to ruin it; Nelson and Wellington had saved it. Ireland had become one in name with England, as we trust she will one day be in heart. The odious *slave-trade* had been abolished, though Englishmen still held slaves in the West Indies and elsewhere; and by the invention of steam-engines and machinery, trade and

manufacture had increased. The two things greatly needed were reforms in Parliament and in the laws of trade.

CHAPTER XIV

PARLIAMENTARY AND OTHER REFORMS

George IV, 1820-1830—William IV, 1830-1837

Trial of Queen Caroline.—We are now coming very near to the times which our fathers and grandfathers can remember. There are still men living (1892), though not many, who can remember the trial of Queen Caroline, which took place when George IV came to the throne. The king wished to dissolve his marriage, but the celebrated lawyer, Brougham, defended the queen, and the Bill was dropped. The English people were much excited about her trial, for they disliked George IV. This was not, however, of much consequence, for he did not interfere with the Government.

The Holy Alliance.—For the next forty years England was at peace, with the exception of one naval battle in 1827 in defence of the Greeks, and some local wars in India and Africa. But Europe was very unsettled after the French Revolution. The sovereigns were afraid their people might rise, and in 1815 Russia, Austria, Prussia, France, and Spain entered into a *Holy Alliance*, promising each other to repress rebellion.

Cato Street Conspiracy.—The English people were afraid that Lord Castlereagh, who was foreign secretary, would join this alliance, and the repressive laws known as the *Six Acts*, which were passed after

the Manchester riots, made them still more uneasy. When George IV had only been king for a month a plot was discovered to murder all the ministers while dining at Lord Harrowby's house. The conspirators were arrested in a stable in *Cato Street*, Edgeware Road, and either put to death or transported. But the restless feeling continued, and when Lord Castlereagh (then Lord Londonderry) became insane and committed suicide, just before joining a congress at Vienna, people were relieved at his death.

Middle-Class Ministers.—Lord Liverpool had been Prime Minister since 1812, and continued so till his death in 1827; but he now made a great change in his colleagues. In 1822 *Canning*, who had served under Pitt, and loved peace, became Foreign Minister; *Robert Peel*, the son of a cotton-spinner, became Home Secretary; and *William Huskisson*, who had held minor posts in the Government, became President of the Board of Trade. These were all middle-class men, and they understood better than the large landowners the reforms which were needed.

Useful Reforms.—Canning refused to join the Holy Alliance, and skilfully kept England out of foreign wars; and Peel, as Home Secretary, improved the criminal law. Very severe sentences were often passed for light crimes, men being hung for stealing small articles, or taking a fish from a pond, equally as for forgery or murder. In 1824 Peel abolished the punishment of death for more than a hundred small crimes, and the laws became more just. In 1829 he also abolished the old infirm *watchmen* who paraded the streets at night, and introduced *policemen*, who were long called *Peelers* or *Bobbies*, after his name. This, with the introduction of gas (1816), made London safer by night and day. About this time, in 1823, *Mechanics' Institutes*

were first founded in London by Dr. Birkbeck ; and last, but not least, county lunatic asylums were established, where poor insane people were kindly cared for, instead of being brutally treated as formerly.

Huskisson, for his part, made most useful reforms in the laws of trade. In 1823 he passed a *Reciprocity of Duties* Bill, by which foreign ships were allowed to bring goods to England from countries which received English ships in return. He reduced the duties on silk and wool, and he repealed the Acts by which magistrates could fix the wages of workmen, and prevent them moving about the country to seek work. At first these reforms brought difficulties. Both masters and men were afraid they would suffer, and the immense increase of trade after the war, made many rush into speculations, till a panic followed and brought great distress. The poor were nearly starving, and clamoured so lustily for food that the Government was obliged to reduce the duty on foreign corn. This led Huskisson in 1828 to pass a law by which the duty on foreign corn *fell* as the price rose, and *rose* as the price fell, so as to keep the cost in England more equal. This was called the *sliding scale*, and was the first step to *free trade* in corn, which did not come for eighteen years.

Foundation of Australian Colonies.—Meanwhile the want of work and food led the Government to think of helping people to go to the colonies, and this movement encouraged many to emigrate at their own expense. In 1826 as many as 13,000 people went to Canada, the Cape, and Australia. Thirty-two years before, in 1788, Pitt had sent *convicts* to Australia, and a convict settlement had been formed in Sydney. These men opened up the country, and in 1803 Lieutenant M'Arthur took merino sheep from the Cape, and was the first *squatter* in *New*

South Wales (see Map). After this free men began to settle there, and in 1826 the colony grew rapidly. *Western Australia* and *South Australia*, whose capital, Adelaide, was called after William IV's queen, soon followed; and many years after, in 1851, *Victoria* was divided off, and called after our queen; as was *Queensland* in 1859.



Walker & Bouill's

Religious Disabilities Removed.—In 1827 Lord Liverpool died, and Canning also died in the same year. After some changes the *Duke of Wellington* became Prime Minister, with a Tory ministry. Yet the desire for liberty had now become so strong that two important Liberal measures were passed, even against Wellington's approval. These were—1. The repeal of the *Test and Corporation Acts*, which prevented dissenters from holding offices in towns or under Government except by special permission of Parlia-

ment. 2. The *Catholic Emancipation Act* (1829), which allowed Roman Catholics to sit in the House of Commons. Over this last Act there was a great struggle, and it was *Daniel O'Connell*, a clever and patriotic Irish barrister, who, by his determination and eloquence, brought this injustice to an end. In 1833 another Act allowed Quakers to *affirm*, as they thought it wrong to take an oath; but it was not till 1858 that the last injustice was removed, and Jews were also allowed to sit in Parliament.

William IV, 1830.—In June 1830 George IV died, and his brother, William IV, a genial sailor, who “walked London streets with his umbrella under his arm,” became king. Several important events took place during the seven years of his reign, and among these were the *Reform Bills*, by which Parliament was made better to represent the people. Stirring events were still going on in France; and a fresh revolution breaking out in 1830, the French king, Charles X, fled to England. He lived in Holyrood Palace, near Edinburgh, which William lent to him, and his cousin, Louis Phillipe, was made king in his place. The people of Belgium also broke away from Holland, and chose Leopold, widower of Princess Charlotte, to be their king.

All this stir among other nations made the English people want to have more power. They had no wish to make revolutions, but the large towns, such as Manchester and Birmingham, demanded to have members in Parliament who should speak for them when fresh laws were made. Wellington could not be persuaded to listen to a Reform Bill, and he had to resign. From that time he became popular again; the people loved their “Iron Duke,” though they did not like his politics.

Reform Bills of 1831-1832.—Lord Grey now became

Prime Minister, and with him were men whose names we know well. Lord Brougham, Lord Melbourne, Lord Palmerston, Lord John Russell, the Hon. Mr. Stanley afterwards Lord Derby, and Lord Lansdowne, have all died within living memory. For more than a year the struggle went on in Parliament. The *first Reform Bill* was thrown out in the Commons, and there was a new general election. In this so many reformers were elected that a *second Bill* was passed in the Commons by a large majority, but the Lords threw it out. Then there was a great outburst of indignation in the country. The manufacturers, the townspeople, and workmen cried out for "the Bill, the whole Bill, and nothing but the Bill," and there were serious riots in many large towns. People began to fear a revolution, and when the *third Bill* was again rejected in the Lords by a majority of thirty-five, Lord Grey said he must ask the king to make enough new peers to outvote those who would not let it pass. Then the Lords wisely gave way. The Bill passed, and 143 seats were taken away from small boroughs and given to the counties and large towns. A great number of people also were given votes who had not had them before, and the middle class gained a voice in making the laws. It was during these discussions that the new name of *Conservative*, for those who wished to keep to the old ways, and *Liberal* for those who wished for reform, took the place of the old names *Tory* and *Whig*. The name of *Radical* had sprung up earlier in 1819, when after the war some men wished to go to the *root* of things and make extreme reforms.

Abolition of Slavery.—For the next five years the Liberals were in power, except for a few months when there was a Conservative Government under Sir Robert Peel, and during these years some good

laws were past. On Aug. 30, 1833, *slavery was at last entirely abolished*, and slaves belonging to British subjects in all parts of the world were free a year and a day after the Act was passed. Wilberforce, who was seventy-five years of age, lived to hear that the Bill was safe and then sank to rest.

Liberal Reforms.—In the same year, 1833, Lord Ashley, afterwards Lord Shaftesbury, passed Acts protecting *children in factories*, and a grant of money was given for the *education of the poor*. The *Poor-law*, too, was altered. Workhouses were built, and those who could not keep themselves were obliged to go there, so that the idle and reckless could no longer live at home on the rates paid by industrious workers. In 1836 a Bill was passed causing all births, deaths, and marriages to be *registered*, and allowing dissenters to be married in their own chapels or before the registrar.

Railroads.—Perhaps, however, the most important event at this time was one which had nothing to do with king or parliament. On Sept. 15, 1830, the first great English railroad, with a train drawn by a locomotive engine at the rate of thirty-five miles an hour, was opened between Liverpool and Manchester. It had been constructed by George Stephenson, a celebrated engineer, who was the son of a poor collier. Many leading men went to the opening, and by a sad accident Huskisson, who had done so much for trade, was struck down and killed by a passing train. Probably, however, he himself would have considered his death a small thing in comparison with the benefits that day first given to the country.

Poverty of the Working-Class.—Yet in spite of all these advances there was still much poverty and misery in the country. The new machinery, factories, and railroads, though great blessings in the end,

brought many changes at first, and these always fall heavily on the poor who cannot alter their work rapidly. Food was still very dear and the rates were very high. It is difficult for us to realise that only fifty years ago many labourers in regular work not only never tasted meat except a little salt pork, but also never saw white bread, and could scarcely even buy barley or rye-bread with which to keep their families from starvation.

CHAPTER XV

ENGLAND UNDER QUEEN VICTORIA

1837-1901 .

At five o'clock in the morning of June 20, 1837, young Princess Victoria of Kent was awakened to receive the Lord Chamberlain and the Archbishop of Canterbury, who told her that her uncle William IV was dead, and she was Queen of England. She was only eighteen years of age, but her mother, the Duchess of Kent, had trained her to be self-reliant, thoughtful for others, and strict in the performance of duty. For nearly sixty-four years she reigned over England, a just ruler and a beloved queen. Her marriage with Prince Albert of Gotha was both happy and a blessing to England, for the Prince Consort was an enlightened, able man, who did his best for the country, and brought up his children to do the same. All our royal princes work hard at different posts in the kingdom.

Dominion of Canada.—As the Laws of Hanover would not allow a woman to reign, Hanover now

became divided from England, and had the Duke of Cumberland as king. Victoria was therefore Queen of England and her colonies only, and in both she had trouble in the beginning of her reign. In Lower Canada, where the population was chiefly French, a rebellion occurred in the same year that she came to the throne, and spread into Upper Canada. Martial law had to be proclaimed, and Lord Durham was sent out as governor-general. The result of this rebellion was that, in 1840, Upper and Lower Canada were united and had a parliament of their own. By degrees all the North American possessions of England, except Newfoundland and Labrador, have become united under the *Dominion of Canada*.

English Chartists, 1838.—In England also there was trouble. The poorer classes could scarcely, as we have seen, get food enough to live, and the artisans were discontented because shopkeepers had votes and they had none. Lord Melbourne, who was then Prime Minister, wanted to “let things alone,” but the people hoped by agitating to get redress. In 1838 a great meeting was held at Birmingham, and Feargus O'Connor drew up a *People's Charter*, asking—1. That all men might have votes. 2. The country to be divided in equal electoral districts. 3. Vote by ballot. 4. Annual parliaments. 5. No land property qualification for members. 6. Payment of members. Nos. 3 and 5 of these demands have now become law, but it would have been unwise to grant them then, and the *Chartists* did great mischief by exciting riots.

Anti-Corn-Law League, 1838.—A far more real trouble was the want of cheap food, and a small body of able men met in Manchester in 1838 to try and get the duty taken off foreign corn. The two great

leaders of the Anti-Corn-Law League were Richard Cobden, a cotton printer of Manchester, and John Bright, a carpet-manufacturer of Rochdale. In those days our Colonies were very thinly populated, and they could not supply us with wheat, as they can now, if we put a tax on *foreign* corn. Cobden and Bright therefore argued that if the duty were taken off imported corn the poor would be able to buy bread more cheaply. Lord Melbourne would not move in the matter, but when he resigned in 1841 *Sir Robert Peel*, who became Conservative Prime Minister, saw that something must be done.

Disaster in Afghanistan.—Peel had great difficulties when he took office. Bad news had just come from India, where English rule had spread north-westward till only the Punjaub and Afghanistan (see Map, p. 111) lay between them and those parts of Asia where the Russians had great influence. In order to keep Russia at bay, the English Government interfered with the rulers of Afghan, and the end was that the English envoy Sir A. Burnes was murdered, and 4500 English troops, besides 25,000 camp followers, were killed while retreating through the Koord Kabul Pass (1841). Though an army was sent to avenge the massacre, it was a great blow to English power in the East.

Income-Tax, 1842.—Peel had also to raise money, for Lord Melbourne had left a very heavy debt behind. To meet this a tax was put on the income of every one who had more than £150 a year. This *Income-Tax* has gone on till our day. In 1855 to 1857 it was as high as 1s. 4d. in the pound, and in 1874 to 1876 as low as 2d.

Repeal of Corn Laws, 1846.—Peel next did all he could to reduce the duty on corn and other articles. Just at this time the harvest failed in

England, and the potato crop in Ireland, and famine was close at hand. Still Peel's Conservative colleagues would not let him take the duty off corn. So he resigned and advised the queen to send for Lord John Russell. Russell and his friends wished for *free-trade* in corn, but unfortunately they could not agree about foreign affairs, so Peel had to remain in office and bring in free-trade himself. On Jan. 26, 1846, the *Repeal of the Corn Laws* passed the House of Commons, and the Bill was confirmed by the Lords on June 25. Peel's old friends the Conservatives were very angry with him for this measure. They joined the Liberals against him on an Irish question, and he resigned, and Lord John Russell took his place.

Increased Prosperity.—Free-trade in corn was a great boon to the people. Now that they had food to eat, they were peaceable and quiet. Though a rebellion occurred in Ireland, and another revolution in France in 1848, yet when the *Chartists* marched to London, hoping to get their charter, no one cared much about it. Special constables were sworn in, and the Duke of Wellington stationed men to disperse the procession as it entered London. But less than 25,000 people assembled and no procession was formed. After this no more was heard of the Chartists. The last of the oppressive *Navigation Laws* was repealed in 1849, and Sir R. Peel died of a fall from his horse in 1850, much regretted by all.

Development of the Colonies, 1843 - 1892.—Another event brought increased prosperity. In 1849 gold-fields were discovered in California, and others in Australia in 1851. This influx of gold not only made things cheaper at home, but also led many to emigrate. The colonies were now becoming very important. At the Cape, Natal became a British

colony in 1843, and Cape Colony was given its own Government in 1850. *New Zealand* was, however, the most important new colony. In 1837 Edward Gibbon Wakefield formed a company in London to colonise this promising country, and in 1840 a treaty was signed with the *Maoris*, or natives, at Waitangi, in which they ceded the sovereignty of the islands to the Queen. There were wars with the natives in 1861-1868, but they are now friendly, and Maori members sit in the New Zealand Parliament.

Thus there were seven Australasian colonies—New Zealand, Tasmania, and the five independent colonies of Australia. In January 1901 these five colonies were united in one Commonwealth, the English Crown being represented by a Governor.

The Crimean War, 1854.—In 1851 the *great Exhibition of the Industries of all nations* was held in Hyde Park. All countries sent exhibits to it, and many people hoped it would be the beginning of peaceful rivalry all over the world instead of war. Alas! it was scarcely closed before troubles began. In France, on Dec. 2, 1852, Prince Louis Napoleon filled Paris with troops, imprisoned a large number of people, and shot down those who opposed him. It was this *coup d'état* which first gave rise to our volunteers, for young Englishmen, fearing a repetition of the troubles caused by the first Napoleon, formed volunteer regiments to protect the country.

It was not in this way, however, that war came, but with Russia, because the Emperor of Russia wished to interfere in Turkey to protect the Christians, and Lord Palmerston was afraid that Russia would become too powerful in the Black Sea. Therefore England and France declared war with Russia March 1854. The chief battles in this war, in all of which the allies were victorious, were

fought at *Alma* Sept. 20, 1854; at *Balaclava* Oct. 25, when by a mistaken order 600 English cavalry dashed forward in the "Charge of the Light Brigade," facing certain death rather than hesitate in obedience; and at *Inkermann* Nov. 5, which was followed by the long winter siege of Sebastopol, lasting on till September 1855, when the fortress was taken, and the war came to an end. On March 30, 1856, Russia signed a treaty, promising not to keep a fleet in the Black Sea.

Yet after all it is now generally acknowledged that the war was a mistake, and many blunders were made in it, causing great suffering to the soldiers. One name, however, will always be gratefully remembered by those who fought and suffered. It was in this war that *Miss Florence Nightingale* went with a band of ladies to nurse the sick and wounded, and since then no field of battle has wanted for kind hands and loving hearts to tend the wounded and the dying.

The Indian Mutiny, 1857.—For a few months England was at peace, and then a terrible disaster happened in India. For a long time there had been discontent among the Indian natives, partly because the English had annexed much new territory, among the rest the Punjaub in 1849, and Oude in 1856; and it happened that in 1857 greased cartridges were given to the *Sepoys*, or native soldiers, for their rifles. They thought that this grease was given them to destroy their caste, and, though the cartridges were changed, a mutiny broke out in May 1857 in nearly all the native regiments. An awful time followed. The men shot down their officers with their wives and children, and a few thousand Englishmen found themselves among millions of maddened natives. Fortunately Lord Canning, the Governor-General, was calm and brave, and Sir John Lawrence could

send from the Punjaub brave Sikh soldiers, who remained true and faithful. Sir Henry Lawrence, too, held out bravely at Lucknow till he died, leaving behind him the order, "Never surrender."

Help came at last from England, but before that a terrible massacre took place at Cawnpore, and Lucknow was so closely besieged that the English expected every day to be overcome. At last the city was relieved by Sir Henry Havelock, and all danger was over. Sir Colin Campbell and Sir Hugh Rose reconquered Central and Northern India. As soon as the war was over the territories of India were transferred to the crown, and the East India Company ceased to exist, and in 1877 the Queen became Empress of India. Though England was at war with China in 1860 no disturbance occurred in India, and the only trouble has been once more in Afghanistan, when in 1879 Sir Frederick Roberts was forced to avenge the murder of an English envoy, Sir Louis Cavagnari.

United States War.—In 1861 came another serious trouble. War broke out in the United States between the North and the South, which lasted for more than four years. This stopped the supply of raw cotton to England, and the men and women in the cotton factories of Lancashire were thrown out of work and nearly starved. They bore it bravely and nobly. Knowing that the North were fighting against *slavery*, they forgot their own sufferings in their sympathy for the slaves. The English Government were not so wise. They took no steps to prevent Englishmen building ships for the rebels, and when the war was over they had to pay heavily for the mischief done by one ship called the *Alabama*.

Minor Wars.—Since 1861 the chief fighting has been in Africa, where troubles with the Boers in the south, and with the Arabs and slave-dealers

in the north, have led to many small wars. Thus there was war with Abyssinia in 1867, Ashantee in 1873, against the Boers and Zulus in 1879-1881, and in the Egyptian Soudan in 1884-1885, when brave General Gordon was murdered at Khartoum, and for thirteen years the Dervishes oppressed and massacred the poor Soudanese. At last, in Sept. 1898, General Kitchener utterly routed the Dervish army at Omdurman, and the Soudan was restored to Egypt.

Advances in our Day.—Meanwhile at home many and great changes have taken place. For the last thirty years both political parties—the Conservatives under Lord Derby, Lord Beaconsfield, and Lord Salisbury—and the Liberals under Lord Palmerston, Lord John Russell, and Mr. Gladstone—have each been trying to improve the condition of the working-classes, and to give all Englishmen their fair share of power.

These changes have happened too recently for discussion, but it is useful to know how they have followed each other in Victoria's reign. In 1840 the boon of a *Penny Post* was gained for the people by Sir Rowland Hill, so that whereas a poor man used to pay 6d., or even 1s. 4d. for sending a letter, he could after 1840 send it everywhere in the United Kingdom for one penny. In 1846, as we have seen, the duty was taken off corn, and bread became cheap. In 1858 the fear of a war with France led Lord Palmerston to encourage the Rifle Volunteers and put them under the War Office, so that England has now a national volunteer army to protect her against foreign enemies. In 1860 Mr. Cobden arranged a commercial treaty with France, by which our trade with that country was much increased. In 1866 a Sanitary or *Public Health Act* gave public officers power to prevent overcrowding in houses, and to

insist on cleanliness and proper drainage. Since then the cholera, though often bad on the continent, has not attacked England. In 1867 the Conservatives, under Disraeli, passed a Reform Bill giving small householders, tenants, and lodgers in towns a vote for Parliament. In 1872 Mr. Gladstone passed the *Ballot Act*, which secures the secrecy of every man's vote; and in 1884 he extended the lodger franchise to country places, so that now labourers, even in small villages, have a voice in the Government. In 1870 Mr. Forster passed an *Education Act* providing for Board Schools, and a few years after another Act obliged every child to be sent to school. In 1892 elementary education was made free.

In 1874, under Disraeli, then Lord Beaconsfield, an Act was passed allowing the colonies at the Cape to become one Federation. This Act will always be memorable, because while it was being discussed the Irish members began that system of *obstruction* in the House which has given trouble ever since. Yet for the Irish also much has been done. In 1869 and 1870 the State Church was disestablished, and Roman Catholics and Protestants placed on an equality. In 1870, and again in 1881, Mr. Gladstone passed Irish Land Acts giving tenants more and more advantages. Still the Irish, under Mr. Parnell, kept up an agitation, and for many years Ireland suffered from land-leagues, boycotting, moonlighting, and the refusal to pay rent under a scheme called the "Plan of Campaign." In 1886 Mr. Gladstone tried to pass a *Home Rule Bill*, giving them again a Parliament in Dublin, but the Bill was thrown out, and Mr. Gladstone resigned. Then *Lord Salisbury* became Prime Minister and his nephew, Mr. Balfour, as Secretary for Ireland, restored order and

prosperity. Still the agitators demanded Home Rule and, in July 1892, *Mr. Gladstone* came back into power. A stormy time followed. A Home Rule Bill was forced through the House of Commons, with many of its clauses not even discussed, and was thrown out by the House of Lords. Mr. Gladstone retired from public life in 1894, and from that time the Liberal Party began to break up. In the general election of 1895, the Unionist Party, with *Lord Salisbury* at their head, came in with a very large majority.

First and Second Jubilees.—Queen Victoria had celebrated her first Jubilee in 1887, attended by many royal guests ; and now in 1897, having reigned sixty years, she drove through London attended by her Colonial Governors, volunteers, and troops from India, and a *Te Deum* was sung on the steps of St. Paul's.

The Boer War.—All seemed to promise a peaceful ending to her reign. But in October 1899 Steyn, president of the Orange Free State, and Krüger, president of the Transvaal, who had long oppressed the English and other settlers with taxes, sent an insulting ultimatum to the Queen, and war broke out. Success at first was on the side of the Boers, and all the colonies sprang forward to help the mother-country. Lords Roberts and Kitchener were sent out in January 1900, and on February 27 General Cronje surrendered with a large army.

From that time the tide turned ; the sieges of Kimberley, Ladysmith, and Mafeking were raised, and Krüger fled to Europe. The Orange Free State was annexed to the Empire, under the name of the Orange River Colony, on May 17, 1900, and the Transvaal on September 1. Krüger escaped to Europe in October, and the Boers carried on a guerilla warfare with great skill and courage, while

Lord Kitchener and Lord Milner began steadily to restore confidence and order.

Death of Queen Victoria.—The sufferings of her soldiers, and the “Boxer” rebellion in China, in which missionaries of all nations were massacred, told much upon the aged Queen. She made great efforts to visit and comfort the wounded soldiers who came home. But with the New Year (1901) her strength began to fail. On January 22 she passed away, surrounded by her children and grandchildren, truly and deeply mourned by all her subjects. On January 24 the procession passed through London proclaiming her son, Edward VII, King.

Coronation of Edward VII.—Before King Edward VII was crowned, England was at peace again. On May 31, 1902, the Boer leaders signed the terms of their surrender, and the Transvaal and Orange River Colonies were made self-governing. British South Africa has been gradually settling down, and in September 1910 the Duke of Connaught went out to open the first national parliament at Cape Town. Thus Cape Colony, Natal, the Transvaal and the Orange River Colony are now united under one government, whose headquarters are at Pretoria, with a parliament at Cape Town.

On June 24, 1902, King Edward underwent a very serious operation, and the coronation had to be postponed till August 9. During his short reign of nine years his ready tact and diplomacy kept us at peace with foreign nations, and the chief events of interest took place within the Empire. In 1902 Mr. Balfour became Prime Minister. In 1905 the Liberals gained the General Election and Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman was in power till his death in 1908, when Mr. Asquith succeeded him. In that

same year an act was passed giving pensions to people of seventy years of age whose incomes are not more than £31:10s. a year. It is to be hoped that this provision for the aged poor, and also the opening of Labour Exchanges in 1910, helping able-bodied men to find work, will have the effect of lessening poverty.

Meanwhile for the last few years both the House of Commons and the country have been very restless. The Finance Bill brought on another general election in January 1910, which left the Irish, under Mr. Redmond, with great power over the English parties.

Death of Edward VII.—In the midst of this turmoil, on May 6, 1910, King Edward VII died, deeply regretted by people of all ranks and parties, and George V. was proclaimed King.

Conclusion.—Looking back over the last two reigns we see that Great Britain and Ireland are far more prosperous than when Queen Victoria came to the throne in 1837. Railways, electric telegraphs, telephones, wireless telegraphy, rapid steamships, and cheap communication between England and her Colonies have made life easier and more comfortable. The chief difficulty in the present day is the great change in methods of work. Machinery has given rise to large factories, instead of men working in their own homes. This, and the rise of powerful capitalists, has led the workers to combine in Trade Unions; and it is very difficult for both sides to judge what is best for all. Again, the growth of our great cities has caused overcrowding and much poverty, and though the labourer now eats white bread, and has a good education for his children, cheap books and Technical Schools, the spirit of unrest is on the land, and it may be some time before the country settles down again

to a new state of things. The one thing we have to remember in *all classes* is to work for the good of the country at large, and not to snatch an advantage for ourselves at the expense of other men; and especially to consider *very carefully* the far-reaching effects of any change which seems to promise a present benefit. Past history teaches that those who grasp at too much are likely to lose more than they gain. Let us move steadily forward, each looking to the good of others, and putting *duty* first in all actions in life. Thus we may yet prove that England is not a declining power, as some would have us believe, but still a fruitful mother, whose "children arise and call her blessed."

CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE

SOME IMPORTANT DATES

Julius Cæsar visits Britain	B.C. 55 - 54
Roman Occupation of Britain	A.D. 43-410
Landing of Jutes, Saxons, and Angles	449-603
Christianity introduced by Augustine	597
Invasions of the Danes	789-1042
Alfred the Great and his family reconquer the Danelagh	871-902
Rule of Danish kings in England	1017-1042
Return of Saxon Rule	1042-1066
The Norman Conquest	1066
Domesday Book compiled	1086
Charter of Liberties granted by Henry I.	1100
Circuits and Juries established by Henry II	1166
Murder of Thomas à Becket	1170
Magna Charta signed	1215
Barons' War with Henry III	1264-1266
Conquest of Wales by Edward I.	1277-1282
First complete English Parliament	1295
Scots War of Independence	1296-1314
Hundred Years' War with France	1337-1453
Black Death and Statute of Labourers	1348-1349

Watt Tyler's Rebellion against the Poll

Tax	1381
House of Lancaster	1399-1461
Persecution of the Lollards	1401-1414
Wars of the Roses begin	1455
House of York	1461-1485
Introduction of Printing into England	1476
Murder of the Young Princes in the Tower	1483
Richard III killed at Bosworth Field	1485
The Tudor Dynasty	1485-1603
Act of Supremacy	1535
Suppression of the Monasteries	1536-1539
First English Prayer-book of Edward VI	1549
Latimer, Ridley, and Cranmer burnt	1555-1556
Loss of Calais and death of Mary	1558
First Poor-law established	1601
Execution of Mary, Queen of Scots	1586
Defeat of the Spanish Armada	1588
East India Company founded	1599
The Stuart Dynasty	1603-1714
Gunpowder Plot discovered	1605
The Pilgrim Fathers emigrate to America	1620
Charles I., Strafford, and Laud rule despoti- cally till execution of Strafford	1629-1641
Scots rebel against use of the Prayer-book	1638
Long Parliament 1640 to 1653—1659 to 1660	
Civil War ending in Execution of Charles I.	1642-1649
The Commonwealth	1649-1660
The Restoration of Charles II	1660
Plague and Fire of London	1665-1666
Habeas Corpus Act passed	1679
Monmouth's Rebellion against James II	1685

Flight of James and Coronation of William and Mary	1688-1689
Siege of Londonderry	1689
Battle of the Boyne	1690
National Debt started	1692
Bank of England established	1694
Marlborough's Wars in France	1702-1713
Taking of Gibraltar	1704
Hanoverian Dynasty	1714
South Sea Bubble	1721
Preaching of Wesley ; rise of the Metho- dists	1738
War of English and French in India	1749-1757
War of English and French in Canada	1754-1760
General Wolfe takes Quebec	1759
Seven Years' War in Europe	1756-1763
American War of Independence	1775-1782
French Revolution	1789
Naval War between England and France	1797-1805
Battle of Trafalgar—Death of Nelson	1805
Union of England and Ireland	1800
Abolition of the Slave Trade	1806
Peninsular War under Wellington	1808-1814
Battle of Waterloo	1815
Foundation of Australian Colonies	1803-1836
Catholic Emancipation Bill passed	1829
Opening of first great Railway	1830
Slavery abolished in all English possessions	1833
First Reform Bill	1831
Penny Post started by Rowland Hill	1839
Income-Tax first levied	1842
Repeal of the Corn Laws	1846
Colonisation of New Zealand	1840

Discovery of Gold in California and America	1849-1851
The Crimean War	1854-1856
The Indian Mutiny	1857-1858
United States War	1861-1864
Reform Bills	1867-1885
Education Acts—Board Schools	1870
Compulsory Education	1876
Free Education	1892
Irish Reforms and Agitation	1869-1892
Murder of General Gordon	1885
Khartoum retaken	1898
Imperial Penny Post established	Christmas 1898
Outbreak of Boer War	Oct. 1899
Surrender of Cronje and relief of Kimberley and Ladysmith	Feb. 1900
Relief of Mafeking	May 1900
Annexation of the two Boer States	May and Sept. 1901
Australian Commonwealth established	Jan. 1901
Death of Queen Victoria	Jan. 22, 1901
King Edward VII proclaimed	Jan. 24, 1901
Boer War Ended	May 31, 1902
Coronation of Edward VII	Aug. 9, 1902
Old Age Pensions Act	Aug. 1, 1908
Labour Exchanges opened	1910
Death of Edward VII	May 6, 1910
King George V proclaimed	May 9, 1910
South African National Parliament opened	Sept. 1910

THE END







